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**Biossíntese de ácido propiônico e análise do comportamento de *Salmonella*
Typhimurium ATCC 14028 exposta a ácidos orgânicos**

Florianópolis

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Typhimurium ATCC 14028 exposta a ácidos orgânicos**

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Typhimurium ATCC 14028 exposta a ácidos orgânicos**

O presente trabalho em nível de Doutorado foi avaliado e aprovado, em 04 de maio de 2023, pela banca examinadora composta pelos seguintes membros:

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RESUMO

A utilização excessiva de antibióticos promotores de crescimento na cadeia produtiva avícola tem sido uma preocupação em relação ao desenvolvimento de bactérias resistentes. Os ácidos orgânicos (AO) de base petroquímica são amplamente utilizados na indústria avícola em substituição aos antibióticos, mas sua produção não é sustentável, pois dependem de fontes finitas e causam poluição ambiental durante o processo. Uma alternativa sustentável são os AO microbianos, que podem minimizar o impacto ambiental e garantir a segurança dessa importante cadeia mundial de produção de alimentos. Nesse contexto, o objetivo geral desse estudo foi testar o efeito de AO (petroquímicos e produzidos por via microbiana) em diferentes pHs (4,5, 5,5 e 5,5) e condições de oxigênio, além de modelar a cinética de crescimento e inativação de *Salmonella Typhimurium*, que é um dos patógenos mais pertinentes no setor avícola. Os compostos avaliados para inibir *S. Typhimurium* incluem ácido propiônico (AP) e acético (AA) de origem petroquímica, mistura de AO do caldo da fermentação propiônica, *propionic fermentation broth*, (PFB) produzida por *Propionibacterium freudenreichii* e dois produtos comerciais com misturas de AO. Todos os experimentos foram realizados em meio BHI ajustado para os pH desejados com HCl 1 M, assim como os AO do PFB para obtenção de soluções de PFB em cada pH. As concentrações de PFB analisadas foram calculadas com base na concentração de AP presente no caldo. Todos os testes foram incubados a 37 °C por 48 h sem agitação e a contagem dos sobreviventes foi realizada em tempos pré-determinados. Determinou-se concentrações inibitórias mínimas (CIM) e concentrações bactericidas mínimas (CBM) dos compostos, como a menor concentração capaz de inibir o crescimento, e de reduzir 3-log de *S. Typhimurium* em 48 h de contato, respectivamente. Realizou-se modelagem matemática para avaliar o efeito das concentrações dos ácidos sobre os parâmetros dos modelos primários e estimar concentrações do AP e do PFB para reduzir 3-log de *S. Typhimurium* em 3 h (tempo de trânsito intestinal de frangos) por modelagem secundária. Os resultados mostraram que a melhor condição para inativação de *S. Typhimurium* em contato com o AP foi em pH 4,5, com CIM de 7 mM e CBM de 10 mM. Em condições de oxigênio limitado, não foi possível determinar a CIM do AA em pH 4,5. No entanto, em aerobiose, a CIM do AA para *S. Typhimurium* foi de 4 mM. Em pH 5,5, a eficiência do AA aumentou em cerca de 3 vezes em condições de oxigênio limitado. Para inibição da cepa pelo PFB, a melhor condição observada foi em pH 4,5, com CIM de 3,5 mM e CBM de 10 mM. As concentrações de AP e PFB em pH 4,5 estimadas por extrapolação do modelo secundário exponencial para reduzir 3-log de *S. Typhimurium* em 3 h foram 94 e 46,4 mM, respectivamente. Embora o modelo tenha sido preciso na previsão da concentração de AP, no PFB, as 3 reduções decimais do patógeno só foram obtidas após 10 h de contato. A combinação do AP e AA no PFB teve efeito sinérgico apenas em pH 4,5, com índices de concentração inibitória fracionada (FIC_{index}) menor que 1. Por fim, as reduções logarítmicas de *S. Typhimurium* em contato com o PFB em pH 4,5 e 5,5 foram tão eficientes quanto às obtidas pelos produtos de AO comerciais testados, demonstrando que o PFB pode ser uma solução alternativa promissora para substituição de AO de base petroquímica, sendo um antimicrobiano natural com grande potencial de uso em indústrias avícolas para o controle de *S. Typhimurium*.

Palavras-chave: Antimicrobiano natural; Antibióticos promotores de crescimento; Microbiologia preditiva.

ABSTRACT

The excessive use of antibiotics growth promoting in the poultry production chain has been a concern regarding the development of antibiotic-resistant bacteria. Petrochemical-based organic acids (OA) are widely used in the poultry industry as a replacement for antibiotics, but their production is not sustainable because they depend on finite sources and cause environmental pollution during the process. A sustainable alternative is microbial OA, which can minimize environmental impact and ensure the safety of this important worldwide food production chain. In this context, the general objective of this study was to test the effect of OA (petrochemical produced via microbial fermentation) at different pHs (4.5, 5.5, and 5.5) and oxygen conditions, as well as to model the growth and inactivation kinetics of *Salmonella* Typhimurium, which is one of the most pertinent pathogens in the poultry sector. The compounds evaluated to inhibit *S. Typhimurium* included propionic acid (PA) and acetic acid (AA) derived from petrochemical sources, a mixture of OA from propionic fermentation broth (PFB) produced by *Propionibacterium freudenreichii*, and two commercial products with OA mixtures. All experiments were carried out in BHI medium adjusted to the desired pH with 1 M HCl, as well as the PFB OAs to obtain PFB solutions at each pH. The PFB concentrations analyzed were calculated based on the concentration of PA present in the broth. All tests were incubated at 37 °C for 48 h without shaking, and survivors were counted at predetermined times. Minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) and minimum bactericidal concentration (MBC) of the compounds were determined as the lowest concentration able to inhibit growth, and to reduce 3-log of *S. Typhimurium* in 48 h of contact, respectively. Mathematical modeling was performed to evaluate the effect of acid concentrations on the parameters of the primary models, and to estimate AP and PFB concentrations to reduce 3-log *S. Typhimurium* in 3 h (chicken intestinal transit time) by secondary modeling. The results showed that the best condition for the inactivation of *S. Typhimurium* in contact with PA was at pH 4.5, with a MIC of 7 mM and MBC of 10 mM. Under limited oxygen conditions, it was not possible to determine the MIC of AA at pH 4.5. However, under aerobic conditions, the MIC of AA for *S. Typhimurium* was 4 mM. At pH 5.5, the efficiency of AA increased about three times under limited oxygen conditions. For inhibition of the strain by PFB, the best condition observed was at pH 4.5, with a MIC of 3.5 mM and MBC of 10 mM. The AP and PFB concentrations estimated by extrapolation of the exponential secondary model to reduce 3 logs of *S. Typhimurium* in 3 h at pH 4.5 were 94 and 46.4 mM, respectively. Although the model was accurate in predicting the AP concentration, in PFB, the 3 decimal reductions of the pathogen were only obtained after 10 hours of contact. The combination of PA and AA in PFB had a synergistic effect only at pH 4.5, with fractional inhibitory concentration (FIC_{index}) less than 1. Finally, the logarithmic reductions of *S. Typhimurium* in contact with PFB at pH 4.5 and 5.5 were higher than those obtained by the tested commercial AO products. This demonstrates that PFB can be a promising alternative solution to substitute AO from a petrochemical base, being a natural antimicrobial with great potential for use in the poultry industry for the control of *S. Typhimurium*.

Keywords: Natural antimicrobial; Antibiotics growth promoters; Predictive microbiology.

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LISTA DE ABREVIATURAS E SIGLAS

h_0 - Estado fisiológico da célula

X_0 - Concentração inicial de célula em base seca

$Y_{AP/S}$ - Fator de conversão de substrato em ácido acético

$Y_{AS/S}$ - Fator de conversão de substrato em ácido succínico

$Y_{X/S}$ - Fator de conversão de substrato em célula

y_0 - Concentração inicial de células de acordo com o modelo de *Baranyi e Roberts*

$Y_{AA/S}$ - Fator de conversão de substrato em ácido acético

y_{MAX} - Crescimento da população máxima de acordo com modelo de *Baranyi e Roberts*

μ_{max} - Velocidade específica máxima de crescimento de acordo com o modelo de *Baranyi e Roberts*

AA - Ácido acético

AO - Ácidos orgânicos

AP - Ácido propiônico

APC - Antibiótico promotor de crescimento

AS - Ácido succínico

ATCC - *American Type Culture Collection*

ATR- *Acid tolerance response*

BAR - *Baranyi & Roberts*

BHI - *Brain-Heart Infusion*

CBM - Concentração bactericida mínima

CIM - Concentração inibitória mínima

DCW - *Dry cell weight*, concentração de célula em base seca [g L⁻¹]

DNA - *Desoxyribonucleic acid*

FIC - Fractional inhibitory concentration

PFB - Propionic fermentation broth

pH - Potencial hidrogeniônico

RNA - *Ribonucleic acid*

TGI - Trato gastrointestinal

UFC - Unidades formadoras de colônias

X - Concentração de célula em base seca

pKa - Constante de dissociação ácida

y - Concentração de células no instante t de acordo com o modelo de *Baranyi e Roberts*

α - Fator de forma de acordo com o modelo de Weibull

β - Fator de escala, tempo para redução de um ciclo logarítmico de acordo com o modelo de Weibull

λ - Duração da fase *lag* de acordo com o modelo de Weibull

DIAGRAMA CONCEITUAL

Biossíntese de ácido propiônico e análise do comportamento de *Salmonella* Typhimurium ATCC 14028 exposta a ácidos orgânicos

Por quê?

A contaminação por *Salmonella enterica* em animais produtores de alimentos ainda é um problema recorrente que ocasiona perdas econômicas nas indústrias avícolas, além de apresentar uma preocupação mundial de saúde pública.

O uso de antibióticos, especialmente pertencentes às classes usadas na medicina humana, com a finalidade de combater as infecções e melhorar o desempenho de animais produtores de alimentos, foi progressivamente suspenso em diversos países, devido à preocupação dos organismos internacionais de saúde quanto ao tema de resistência aos antibióticos.

A remoção dos antibióticos promotores de crescimento levou a um desempenho reduzido no ganho de peso dos animais produtores de alimentos e também aumentou a persistência de *Salmonella* no ambiente aviário. Diversos compostos antimicrobianos são usados como substituintes aos antibióticos, como por exemplo, ácidos orgânicos de cadeia curta. Esses ácidos são usados há décadas como aditivos na alimentação contribuindo para o ganho de peso de aves e para a redução de populações microbianas. Entretanto, a produção desses ácidos ocorre a partir de fontes petroquímicas, ou seja, não contribuem para a sustentabilidade dessa importante cadeia de produção de alimentos. O ácido propiônico, produzido majoritariamente por fontes petroquímicas, é um aditivo alimentar considerado seguro e utilizado como antibacteriano e antimicótico. Na produção desse composto por via biotecnológica é possível obter uma mistura de ácidos orgânicos naturais, que podem apresentar uma alternativa com grande potencial antimicrobiano para substituir os antibióticos e os ácidos de base petroquímica.

Estado da arte

Está bem documentada a eficiência de diferentes ácidos orgânicos para inibir o crescimento de *Salmonella* Typhimurium em diferentes condições ambientais.

Já foram relatados trabalhos comprovando que mistura comerciais de ácidos orgânicos reduzem o crescimento de *Salmonella* spp., bem como favorecem um melhor desempenho no ganho de peso de aves de corte.

Foi reportado que o ácido propiônico é eficaz na inibição de *S. Typhimurium*, favorece o ganho de peso em animais de corte e aumenta a digestibilidade de proteínas.

De acordo com a literatura consultada, há poucos trabalhos que demonstram os efeitos do ácido propiônico e acético em cepas de *S. Typhimurium* expostas a diferentes concentrações dos ácidos levando em consideração o pH ambiente e a condição de oxigênio. E ainda não há estudos que demonstram o comportamento de *S. Typhimurium* quando exposta ao caldo da produção microbiana do ácido propiônico.

Hipóteses do trabalho

Os ácidos orgânicos possuem propriedade específicas como tamanho da cadeia carbônica e pK_a , que influenciam na sua atividade antimicrobiana. Tratamento com misturas de ácidos orgânicos possuem um espectro mais amplo de pK_a e podem apresentar maior eficiência na atividade antimicrobiana, atingindo o efeito desejado em baixas concentrações dos ácidos.

Acredita-se que os produtos da fermentação propiônica (AP, AA e ácido succínico demonstre um efeito inibitório sinérgico, sendo mais eficaz do que os ácidos propiônico e acético de grau analítico e um produto comercial de ácidos orgânicos, usados para evitar infecções por *S. Typhimurium*.

Estratégia

Determinar a concentração inibitória mínima (CIM) e bactericida (CBM) do ácido propiônico de grau analítico para *S. Typhimurium* em diferentes pH (4,5, 5,5 e 6,5), que correspondem a média de pH do trato gastrointestinal de frangos;

Utilizar modelagem matemática para estabelecer a concentração de ácido propiônico necessária para reduzir 3 log de *S. Typhimurium* em 3 h;

Determinar a CIM do ácido acético em pH 4,5, 5,5 e 6,5 para *S. Typhimurium*;

Produzir o ácido propiônico por *Propionibacterium freudenreichii* baseado em condições já estabelecidas na literatura;

Determinar a CIM e CBM do caldo da fermentação propiônica, com base na concentração de ácido propiônico presente, em pH 4,5, 5,5 e 6,5 para *S. Typhimurium*;

Utilizar modelagem matemática para estabelecer a concentração do caldo da fermentação propiônica necessária para reduzir 3 log de *S. Typhimurium* em 3 h (tempo de trânsito intestinal de frangos);

Avaliar o efeito sinérgico dos ácidos presentes no caldo da fermentação propiônica, comparando os valores de CIM de cada ácido isolado.

Comparar os resultados dos ácidos orgânicos de base biológica com um produto comercial de ácidos orgânicos de base petroquímica.

Resultados esperado

Espera-se que os ácidos orgânicos presentes no Caldo da Fermentação Propiônica sejam tão eficientes quanto misturas comerciais de ácidos orgânicos já utilizados como antimicrobiano, e apresente um efeito sinérgico para inativação *S. Typhimurium*.

ESTRUTURA DA TESE DE DOUTORADO

Este trabalho foi estruturado em capítulos. A metodologia, resultados e discussões do trabalho foram apresentados em capítulos na forma de artigos conforme a organização a seguir.

As referências bibliográficas de todos os capítulos são apresentadas ao final do trabalho.

Capítulo 1: INTRODUÇÃO E OBJETIVOS

Capítulo 2: REVISÃO BIBLIOGRÁFICA

Capítulo 3:

MODELAGEM DA INFLUÊNCIA DA CONCENTRAÇÃO DE ÁCIDO PROPIÔNICO E PH NA CINÉTICA DE *SALMONELLA* TYPHIMURIUM

Este capítulo está apresentado como artigo científico e submetido à revista científica *International Microbiology*.

Capítulo 4:

EFEITO INIBITÓRIO DO ÁCIDO ACÉTICO EM DIFERENTES PH NO CONTROLE DE *SALMONELLA* TYPHIMURIUM EM CONDIÇÕES AERÓBICAS E COM LIMITAÇÃO DE OXIGÊNIO

Capítulo 5:

MODELAGEM MATEMÁTICA DO EFEITO DO CALDO DE FERMENTAÇÃO PROPIÔNICA PARA O CONTROLE DE *SALMONELLA* TYPHIMURIUM EM DIFERENTES PH

Capítulo 6:

CONCLUSÃO E SUGESTÕES PARA TRABALHOS FUTUROS

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1 INTRODUÇÃO

A produção de frangos teve uma expansão mundial considerável nos últimos anos e, com isso, surgiram preocupações em relação ao controle sanitário na indústria aviária, quanto à contaminação por *Salmonella* spp., que é uma bactéria que pode persistir em qualquer setor da cadeia de produção (DALLAL *et al.*, 2010; DITTOE; RICKE; KIESS, 2018; JARQUIN *et al.*, 2009; USDA, 2020; ZISHIRI; MKHIZE; MUKARATIRWA, 2016).

Salmonella spp. pode ser introduzida nas granjas avícolas por várias fontes, incluindo ovos e pintos infectados, água e ração contaminada (ZISHIRI; MKHIZE; MUKARATIRWA, 2016). Embora o habitat natural de *Salmonella* spp. seja o trato gastrointestinal (TGI) de animais e humanos, sua presença em outros ambientes pode ocorrer por meio de contaminação cruzada durante a mistura das rações, nos alimentadores de grãos, pelo solo, por insetos, nas operações de abate ou no transporte (JONES, 2011; OECD; FAO, 2015; SANDERSON, 2013).

A ração contaminada pode causar a perda de um lote de aves em torno de dez dias. Além da perda na produtividade e mortalidade dos animais, as contaminações resultam em um grande impacto econômico de bilhões de dólares com tratamentos médicos em humanos e *recalls* dos produtos (JARQUIN *et al.*, 2009).

Para controlar as infecções por *Salmonella* e melhorar a saúde dos animais, as indústrias utilizavam, frequentemente, antibióticos promotores de crescimento (APC) na ração ou na água potável dos animais. Os APC são administrados na produção avícola para fins profiláticos e para melhorar o crescimento e a eficiência de conversão alimentar (ARISTIMUNHA *et al.*, 2016; DIARRA; MALOUIN, 2014; GONZALEZ RONQUILLO; ANGELES HERNANDEZ, 2017; ZISHIRI; MKHIZE; MUKARATIRWA, 2016). No entanto, as indústrias avícolas foram pressionadas a reduzir o uso de APC, pois a prática excessiva desses agentes trouxe preocupações aos consumidores e à comunidade científica quanto à possibilidade de resistência bacteriana aos antibióticos (LAI *et al.*, 2014; PARRY; THRELFALL, 2008; ZISHIRI; MKHIZE; MUKARATIRWA, 2016).

A redução do uso dos APC obrigou os países interessados em continuar exportando produtos de origem animal a buscar alternativas e assegurar o máximo desempenho do animal. Nesse contexto, a comunidade científica iniciou estudos

sobre novos agentes para substituir os APC. Entre os compostos mais avaliados, os ácidos orgânicos se tornaram um dos principais substituintes, por apresentarem potencial antimicrobiano (POLYCARPO *et al.*, 2017; UPADHAYA; LEE; KIM, 2014; WALES; ALLEN; DAVIES, 2010).

Os ácidos orgânicos (AO) e seus sais tem sido amplamente estudados para a conservação de alimentos e para diminuição da incidência de infecções, reduzindo a carga de bactérias no TGI e diminuindo a competição por nutrientes (DIJKSTERHUIS *et al.*, 2019; DITTOE; RICKE; KIESS, 2018; HAQUE *et al.*, 1970; HUYGHEBAERT; DUCATELLE; IMMERSEEL, 2011; KHAN; IQBAL, 2016; LEE; KIM; KIM, 2015; POLYCARPO *et al.*, 2017; VAN IMMERSEEL *et al.*, 2006).

Dentre os AO utilizados como agentes antimicrobianos, o ácido propiônico (AP) apresenta boa eficiência se for aplicado em pH baixo e próximo ao do TGI dos animais (DIBNER; BUTTIN, 2002; DIBNER; RICHARDS, 2005). O ácido acético (AA) também é um importante produto químico orgânico industrial com uma grande demanda global, frequentemente, utilizado como acidulante e conservante de alimentos (GOMES *et al.*, 2018; PRAVASI, 2014). É um dos ácidos mais utilizados para lavagem de carcaças de frangos, com objetivo de prolongar a vida útil de produtos embalados (XU; SHI; JIANG, 2011).

A maior parte dos AO é produzida a partir de fontes petroquímicas (STOWERS; COX; RODRIGUEZ, 2014). No entanto, devido às preocupações quanto a poluição ambiental gerada no processo, e por usar uma fonte finita de substrato, a produção por via biológica é uma alternativa promissora para substituir os AO de base petroquímica. A produção de AP por via biotecnológica, por exemplo, chama cada vez mais atenção por utilizar de recursos renováveis no processo de fermentação, além de que o produto final pode ser rotulado como natural (AMMAR *et al.*, 2020; BECKER; WITTMANN, 2015; CHAE *et al.*, 2020; LIU *et al.*, 2015; WANG *et al.*, 2016). A biossíntese de AP também traz como produtos secundários o AA e ácido succínico (AS) (YANG *et al.*, 2018). Uma combinação de ácidos que podem apresentar um potencial efeito antimicrobiano.

O AP já foi avaliado na dieta animal como base de aditivo comercial para rações devido a sua capacidade antibacteriana e de melhorador de crescimento (DIXON; HAMILTON, 1981; HA *et al.*, 1998; KWON; RICKE, 1998b; MATLHO *et al.*, 1997; ROUSE; ROLOW; NELSON, 1988; THOMPSON; HINTON, 1997). O AA foi

avaliado em vários estudos como solução de lavagem em carcaças de animais para a produção de alimentos (CARPENTER; SMITH; BROADBENT, 2011; DINÇER; BAYSAL, 2004; GONZALEZ-FANDOS; HERRERA, 2014; GONZÁLEZ-FANDOS; MARTÍNEZ-LAORDEN; PEREZ-ARNEDO, 2021; KUMAR *et al.*, 2020)

De acordo com a literatura consultada, há poucos estudos que investigaram a sensibilidade de *S. Typhimurium* exposta ao AP. A maioria dos estudos relatou o comportamento da cepa exposta à mistura de AO, nas quais o AP está presente. Além disso, esses estudos não levaram em consideração o pH ambiente, uma vez que existe uma variação do pH no TGI dos frangos (GIANNENAS *et al.*, 2014; HUME *et al.*, 1993; MABELEBELE *et al.*, 2013; RODRIGUES; CHOCT, 2018; WALES; ALLEN; DAVIES, 2010). Também não há dados na literatura sobre o uso de AA para inibir *S. Typhimurium* em diferentes condições de pH e oxigênio. Cabe ainda ressaltar que até o momento não há nada relatado na literatura consultada sobre o uso de AO microbianos para inibir *S. Typhimurium* levando em consideração o pH ambiente.

Nesse contexto, é importante estudar os efeitos dos ácidos orgânicos contra *S. Typhimurium* em pH diferentes. Esse estudo teve como objetivo estabelecer concentrações inibitórias mínimas e bactericidas de AP e AA de base petroquímica, e AO microbianos para *S. Typhimurium* em diferentes condições de pH e oxigênio. E modelar o comportamento de *S. Typhimurium* exposta a diferentes concentrações de ácidos orgânicos.

1.1 OBJETIVOS GERAL

Avaliar e modelar o comportamento de *S. Typhimurium* exposta a ácidos orgânicos isolados e o caldo da fermentação propiônica em diferentes pH.

1.1.1 Objetivos específicos

- Determinar a concentração inibitória mínima (CIM) e bactericida mínima (CBM) do ácido propiônico de origem petroquímica para *S. Typhimurium* em pH 4,5, 5,5 e 6,5;
- Modelar a cinética de crescimento e inativação de *S. Typhimurium* exposta ao ácido propiônico em diferentes concentrações em pH 4,5, 5,5 e 6,5 para a obtenção dos parâmetros cinéticos;
- Estimar por modelagem matemática a concentração de AP necessária para reduzir 3 ciclos logarítmicos de *S. Typhimurium* em 3 h;
- Estabelecer a CIM do ácido acético de origem petroquímica em pH 4,5, 5,5 e 6,5 em condições aeróbias e de limitação de oxigênio;
- Produzir ácido propiônico por *Propionibacterium freudenreichii* subsp. *shermani* ATCC 9614 em batelada utilizando glicose como fonte de carbono;
- Ajustar modelos preditivos aos dados que descrevem o comportamento de *S. Typhimurium* expostas aos ácidos do caldo da fermentação propiônica em diferentes concentrações em pH 4,5, 5,5 e 6,5 para obtenção dos parâmetros de crescimento e inativação;
- Estimar por modelagem matemática a concentração do caldo da fermentação propiônica necessária para reduzir 3 ciclos logarítmicos de *S. Typhimurium* em 3 h;
- Avaliar o efeito associado dos ácidos orgânicos do caldo da fermentação propiônica em pH 4,5, 5,5 e 6,5, para verificar o potencial do caldo como substituinte de APC, visando o controle de *S. Typhimurium*.

2 REVISÃO BIBLIOGRÁFICA

2.1 SALMONELLA

2.1.1 Características microbiológicas

O gênero *Salmonella* foi caracterizado pela primeira vez em 1885 e recebeu o nome do Dr. Daniel Elmer Salmon, patologista veterinário que administrava um programa de pesquisa sobre microrganismos do Departamento de Agricultura dos Estados Unidos (USDA). Salmon e Theobald Smith isolaram do intestino de suínos, o que era chamado na época, *Bacillus choleraesuis*, mas essa nomenclatura foi alterada em 1900 para *Salmonella choleraesuis* (AGBAJE *et al.*, 2011; RYAN; O'DWYER; ADLEY, 2017; STEVE YAN *et al.*, 2004).

Pertencente à família Enterobacteriaceae, composta por mais de 2600 sorovares, as bactérias do gênero *Salmonella* spp. são Gram-negativas, possuem forma de bastonete, não formam esporos e geralmente são móveis com flagelos peritríticos. É um gênero anaeróbio facultativo, não fermenta lactose, é oxidase negativa, urease negativa, acetimetil-carbinol negativa e cianeto de potássio negativa (AGBAJE *et al.*, 2011; BELL; KYRIAKIDES, 2009; GARCÍA *et al.*, 2011; POPOFF; LE MINOR, 2015; RYAN; O'DWYER; ADLEY, 2017). Seu principal habitat é o trato gastrointestinal (TGI) de animais e humanos e é um patógeno clinicamente importante na medicina humana e veterinária (RYAN; O'DWYER; ADLEY, 2017; SANDERSON, 2013).

De acordo com a nomenclatura de Kauffmann-White, o gênero é dividido em duas espécies, *Salmonella bongori* e *Salmonella enterica*. Essa última espécie é dividida em seis subespécies, que são subdivididas em sorovares e diferenciadas por suas estruturas flagelares, de carboidratos e lipopolissacarídeos (COBURN; GRASSL; FINLAY, 2007). As subespécies são designadas como; enterica, salamae, arizonae, diarizonae, houtenae e indica. A nomenclatura é complexa, mas pode ser abreviada, por exemplo, *Salmonella enterica* subsp. *enterica* sorovar Typhimurium, geralmente é designado apenas pelo gênero e sorovar (*Salmonella* Typhimurium) (ANJUM; THOMSON, 2013; LAMAS *et al.*, 2018; RYAN; O'DWYER; ADLEY, 2017).

Salmonella enterica é principalmente isolada de animais de sangue quente (LAMAS *et al.*, 2018). Em geral, a temperatura ótima de crescimento para *Salmonella* é de 35 a 37 °C, mas já foi registrado crescimento em temperaturas de até 54 °C, assim como, crescimento sob refrigeração nas temperaturas entre 2 a 4 °C (ADLEY; RYAN, 2016; D'AOUST; MAURER, 2007).

Salmonella pode crescer em ambientes estressantes, incluindo pH baixos de 3,8 até pH alcalino de 9,5, sendo o pH ótimo de crescimento entre 6,5 a 7,5 (GRAZIANI *et al.*, 2017; SPECTOR; KENYON, 2012). Bactérias desse gênero requerem alta atividade de água (A_w) entre 0,94 a 0,99 para crescer, e são inibidas em A_w inferior a 0,94 (ALJARALLAH; ADAMS, 2007).

Entre os diferentes tipos de *Salmonella*, os sorovares de *Salmonella enterica* subsp. *enterica* têm um alto potencial de colonizar animais produtores de alimentos e humanos (GALIŞ *et al.*, 2013).

2.1.2 Ilhas de patogenicidade de *Salmonella*

A capacidade de *Salmonella enterica* de colonizar o hospedeiro está atribuída a grupos de genes codificados nas ilhas de patogenicidade de *Salmonella* (SPI-, *Salmonella pathogenicity island*.). Os estágios da infecção envolvem a invasão, o cruzamento da barreira celular epitelial e a replicação em células do sistema imunológico do hospedeiro. A maior parte dos genes, relacionados à infecção das células hospedeiras por *Salmonella*, é dirigida por sistemas de secreção bacteriana do tipo III (*type III secretion systems* - T3SS) (FOLEY *et al.*, 2013; HANSEN-WESTER; HENSEL, 2001; HAUTEFORT *et al.*, 2008). O T3SS é um complexo multiprotéico que permite o transporte das proteínas de virulência, interferindo nas funções da célula hospedeira (GHOSH, 2004; HANSEN-WESTER; HENSEL, 2001).

Em geral, a SPI-1 codifica genes de invasão, SPI-2 é necessário para infecção sistêmica, replicação e proteção do vacúolo contendo *Salmonella* (*Salmonella containing vacuole* - SCV), a SPI-3 é responsável pela sobrevivência de *Salmonella* nos macrófagos, SPI-4 abriga genes para secreção e apoptose, a SPI-5 agrupa genes que codificam várias proteínas do T3SS (ASTEN; DIJK, 2005; BINGLE; BAILEY; PALLAN, 2008; FOLEY; LYNNE; NAYAK, 2008; HAUTEFORT *et al.*, 2008; LEUNG *et al.*, 2011). Já foram investigadas infecções por cepas de *Salmonella enterica* em

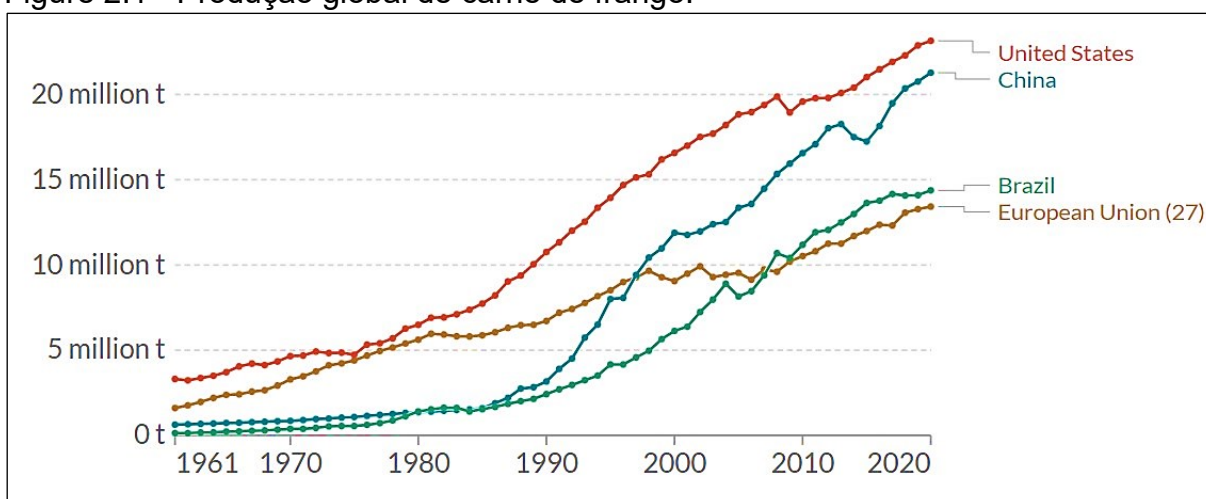
diversos animais, incluindo aves, suínos, bovinos e peixes. As aves são os principais animais portadores de *Salmonella*, atuando como fontes de contaminação em humanos a partir de produtos avícolas (GATTO *et al.*, 2006; NHUNG *et al.*, 2018; WHITE *et al.*, 2001).

2.2 PRODUÇÃO AVÍCOLA E LEGISLAÇÃO

Com o aumento da população global, a responsabilidade para garantir a segurança alimentar induziu o crescimento constante da produção avícola (ZISHIRI; MKHIZE; MUKARATIRWA, 2016). De acordo com dados da Organização das Nações Unidas para Alimentação e Agricultura (*Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations* - FAO), a carne de frango tem sido a segunda carne mais consumida no mundo, por se tratar de um alimento sustentável, com alto nível de proteína e baixo teor de gordura (DÓREA *et al.*, 2010; EL-AZIZ, 2013; FAO, 2017).

A produção mundial de carne de frango aumentou rapidamente nos últimos 50 anos (Figura 2.1), tendo os EUA, China, Brasil e União Europeia (UE) como os maiores produtores no mundo, que em 2020 totalizaram uma produção de 61,3 milhões de toneladas de carne de frango. Entre os maiores produtores, o Brasil se consolidou o maior exportador de carne de frango (USDA, 2020).

Figure 2.1 - Produção global de carne de frango.



Fonte: Extraído de *Our World in Data* (2020).

No Brasil, de acordo com os dados da Associação Brasileira de Proteína Animal (ABPA), nos últimos anos, a produção de carne de frango permaneceu

relativamente constante, com uma média de 14 milhões de toneladas por ano, sendo 31% destinado ao comércio exterior. Já em relação à receita de exportação de carne de frango, em 2020 houve uma queda de 12,8% comparado ao ano anterior (ABPA, 2021; USDA, 2021).

Os altos índices de produtividade no setor avícola trazem também grandes preocupações quanto ao controle de doenças zoonóticas, com implicações importantes para a saúde humana (ANTUNES *et al.*, 2016).

Vários países importadores como Japão, Coreia e os membros da UE, realizam controles rígidos quanto à contaminação por *Salmonella* Typhimurium e *Salmonella* Enteritidis em amostras de frango de corte, por serem os sorovares mundialmente considerados importantes em relação à saúde pública. É necessário que os países exportadores de frango sigam os requisitos exigidos para evitar a disseminação desses patógenos no comércio internacional (RODPAI *et al.*, 2013).

Na UE, o Regulamento nº 2160/2003, que estabelece controles para a redução de *S. Typhimurium* e *S. Enteritidis*, exige a ausência desses patógenos nas amostras de carne de aves para importação e mercado interno (EFSA, 2003).

No Brasil, o Ministério da Agricultura, Pecuária e Abastecimento (MAPA) é o órgão responsável pela inspeção sanitária dos produtos de origem animal, e estabelece normas de controle e monitoramento de *Salmonella* em granjas avícolas de corte e reprodução, adotando medidas de segurança sanitária específicas para *S. Typhimurium*, *S. Enteritidis*, *S. Galimaram* e *S. Pullorum* (BRASIL, 2020).

As Instruções Normativas (IN) nº 20/2016 e a da legislação brasileira determinam ausência de *S. Typhimurium* e *S. Enteritidis* em amostras de cortes de frango. No entanto, para os estabelecimentos de produção, dependendo do volume de abate, há uma tolerância de amostras positivas para *Salmonella* spp. Por exemplo, empresas que têm um volume de abate de até 50 mil frangos por dia, podem apresentar uma tolerância de 25% de amostras positivas para *Salmonella* spp. Nas empresas de porte médio e grande, com abate de 100 mil a 200 mil frangos diário, podem apresentar até 23% de positividade para *Salmonella* spp. (MAPA, 2016, 2019a).

Os EUA apresentam um regulamento semelhante ao Brasil quanto ao padrão de *Salmonella* em cortes de frango. O Serviço de Inspeção e Segurança de alimentos do Departamento de Agricultura (*Food Safety and Inspection Service* – FSIS), definiu

o padrão de desempenho para *Salmonella* em no máximo 20% de amostras positivas (FSIS, 2021).

Apesar das medidas de controle contra *Salmonella* estabelecidas pelos regulamentos de países com avicultura desenvolvida, as contaminações continuam recorrentes (ANTUNES *et al.*, 2016; COBURN; GRASSL; FINLAY, 2007; DALLAL *et al.*, 2010; DAR *et al.*, 2017; GALIŞ *et al.*, 2013; LETTINI *et al.*, 2016; LI *et al.*, 2017).

2.3 CONTAMINAÇÃO POR SALMONELLA NA INDÚSTRIA AVÍCOLA

A doença zoonótica mais comum que ocorre na avicultura é causada pelo gênero *Salmonella*, e provoca uma série de danos em termos de mortalidade, redução do crescimento das aves e perdas na produção de ovos. Uma ave contaminada é o suficiente para infectar todo o lote de um bando e lotes próximos, dificultando o controle do patógeno (DAR *et al.*, 2017). Os principais fatores de risco de contaminação por *Salmonella* na indústria avícola estão apresentados na Figura 2.2.

Figure 2.2 - Riscos de contaminação por *Salmonella* na indústria avícola.



Fonte: Adaptado de Dar *et al.* (2017), Koutsoumanis *et al.* (2019), El-Aziz (2013) e Rajan; Shi e Ricke (2017).

Da granja à mesa, a contaminação de produtos avícolas pode ocorrer em qualquer nível da cadeia de produção, incluindo a água e a ração (DÓREA *et al.*, 2010; RODPAI *et al.*, 2013; YAN *et al.*, 2011). Cada etapa do processamento de frango pode atuar como fonte de contaminação de *Salmonella* como, por exemplo, a falta de higiene no manuseio e equipamentos de abate sujos.

A ração dos animais pode ser contaminada por uma variedade de fontes, incluindo os ingredientes para elaboração da ração, a água, poeira, material fecal e solo na fábrica de ração (GALIŞ *et al.*, 2013; RICKE, 2005).

Já foi comprovado contaminação por *Salmonella* em diversos ingredientes da ração, como as fontes de proteínas animal, farelos de amendoim, farelo de girassol, cereais, farinhas de sementes oleaginosas, soja, colza e palmiste (COX *et al.*, 2013; MACIOROWSKI *et al.*, 2006; RICHARDSON *et al.*, 2018; SALOMONSSON *et al.*, 2005).

As rações comerciais passam por uma série de tratamentos como trituração, aquecimento e a peletização, que é um processo no qual os ingredientes da ração são submetidos a faixas de temperaturas, pressão, umidade e compressão mecânica para formação dos *pellets* (RÖHE *et al.*, 2014; ZENTEK; GOODARZI BOROJENI, 2020). Contudo, *Salmonella* pode resistir aos estresses empregados no processo de produção, tornando a ração uma fonte do patógeno para colonização no TGI das aves. A infecção pode ser assintomática nas aves, mas pode apresentar um risco potencial à saúde pública (DAR *et al.*, 2017; RICKE, 2005; TU *et al.*, 2015).

Alguns fatores responsáveis pela persistência de *Salmonella* nas rações, incluem a própria resistência do patógeno aos tratamentos térmicos da fabricação, que geralmente envolve temperaturas entre 70 e 90 °C, como também o armazenamento da ração em silos com umidade e temperatura propícias ao crescimento de *Salmonella* sobrevivente (CARRIQUE-MAS; BEDFORD; DAVIES, 2007; JONES, 2011).

Em uma matriz de alimento seco, *Salmonella* permanece em um estado de estresse, mas sob condições apropriadas, como o ambiente úmido do intestino, a cepa pode se tornar viável e promover a infecção (RICHARDSON *et al.*, 2018).

A contaminação também pode ocorrer durante o processo de abate e, antes dessa etapa, os frangos de corte são privados de alimentos por 12 h, com o objetivo de esvaziar o intestino e reduzir a contaminação das carcaças por material fecal

(MACIOROWSKI *et al.*, 2006). Para evitar que ocorra aumento da contaminação, a estratégia é simular o ambiente do papo do frango com adição de antimicrobianos externos, geralmente administrados na água antes do abate (FARHAT *et al.*, 2002).

As principais cepas responsáveis pela maioria das contaminações nas aves são os sorovares de *S. Typhimurium* e *S. Enteritidis*. *S. Typhimurium* tem recebido maior atenção dos pesquisadores, por ser um dos patógenos de origem alimentar mais comuns de infecções em animais e humanos (ABHISINGHA; DUMNIL; PITAKSUTHEEPONG, 2020; AMINI *et al.*, 2010; COBURN; GRASSL; FINLAY, 2007; LI *et al.*, 2017; MACIOROWSKI *et al.*, 2006; MEZAL; STEFANOVA; KHAN, 2013; MIARELLI *et al.*, 2016; RODPAI *et al.*, 2013).

2.3.1 Incidência de *S. Typhimurium* na avicultura

Embora a salmonelose esteja associada também a outros sorovares, *S. Typhimurium* tem uma capacidade maior de infectar uma série de espécies hospedeiras (ANTUNES *et al.*, 2016). Além disso, *S. Typhimurium* pode lidar com múltiplos fatores de estresses ambientais, se tornando um sorovar muito persistente na contaminação de produtos avícolas (D'AOUST; MAURER, 2007; EL-AZIZ, 2013; RYCHLIK; BARROW, 2005; SPECTOR; KENYON, 2012).

S. Typhimurium vem apresentando frequente contaminação em lotes de aves de postura e na casca de ovos. Na Austrália, onde *S. Enteritidis* não é mais uma presença forte em bandos de postura, *S. Typhimurium* foi considerada a principal contaminante externa de ovos (WALES; DAVIES, 2011).

No Brasil, um estudo realizado por Osowski *et al.* (2019), comparou a contaminação artificial por *S. Typhimurium* e *S. Heidelberg* em ovos recém postos e sem passar por nenhum processo de higiene. Após 24 h de incubação, amostras foram coletadas e os resultados mostraram que *S. Typhimurium* apresentou maior incidência de contaminação do que *S. Heidelberg*, tanto na albumina quanto na gema do ovo. O que demonstra resistência de *S. Typhimurium* às condições antimicrobianas da albumina.

Li *et al.* (2020) avaliaram mensalmente por um ano a contaminação por *Salmonella* spp. em frangos de cortes na província de Shaanxi na China. Os

resultados mostraram que 39 sorovares de *S. enterica* foram identificados, dos quais *S. Typhimurium* foi o mais prevalente com 16,7% dos isolados.

Outro estudo também realizado na China, analisou a prevalência de *Salmonella* spp. em 110 aviários de corte. Vários fatores foram avaliados como, comedouros, bebedouro, água de lavagem, fezes, vestuários dos colaboradores, roedores, ventiladores, e todos testaram positivos para *Salmonella* spp. antes e após a desinfecção dos ambientes. A prevalência de contaminação por *Salmonella* spp. nesse estudo foi de 48%, sendo *S. Typhimurium* responsável por 24% das contaminações (FIROUZABADI *et al.*, 2020).

Segundo o relatório de controle de alimentos de origem animal do Departamento de Inspeção de Produtos de Origem Animal (DIPOA), entre março de 2018 e fevereiro de 2019 foram avaliados 134 abatedouros de frangos no Brasil. Para a verificação dos abatedouros, foram coletadas 2.791 amostras de carcaças de frango, sendo detectada a presença de *Salmonella* spp. em 12,71% (354 de 2.791, dos quais *S. Typhimurium* foi a cepa mais persistente (MAPA, 2019b).

Portanto, a capacidade desse sorovar persistir em produtos avícolas, o torna um agente potencial para infecção em humanos (DAR *et al.*, 2017).

2.4 INFECÇÃO POR SALMONELLA EM HUMANOS

A via de infecção do patógeno para o homem envolve a sobrevivência e multiplicação da cepa no ambiente aviário, na ave e, finalmente, no produto final (SILVA; DUARTE, 2002).

Em humanos saudáveis, em geral, a doença é promovida por uma carga bacteriana de 10^6 a 10^8 UFC mL⁻¹. Além disso, em pessoas com baixa imunidade, *Salmonella* pode invadir a corrente sanguínea ou sistema linfático e constituir uma doença mais grave. Algumas vezes, a doença pode evoluir para uma infecção focal como, meningite, infecção óssea e articular (BELL; KYRIAKIDES, 2009; CHEN *et al.*, 2013).

2.4.1 Evidências de surtos de salmonelose humana

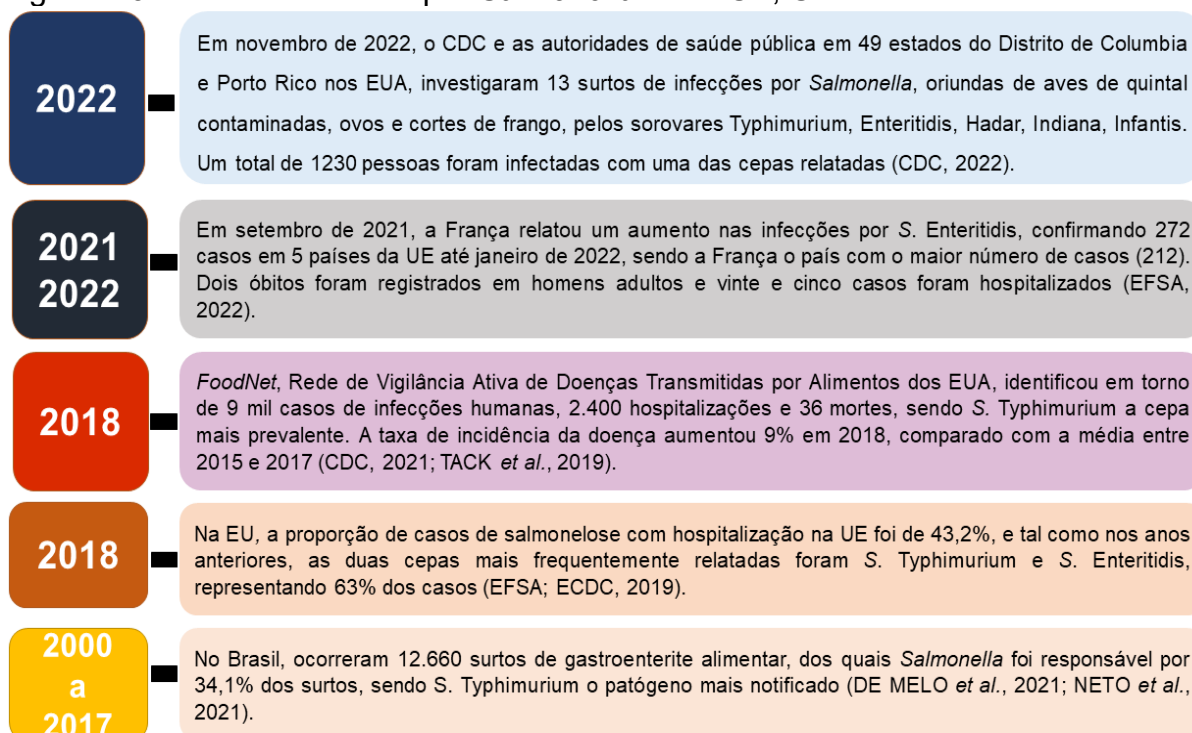
Após a colonização e sobrevivência em produtos avícolas, os sorovares de *Salmonella enterica*, eventualmente, chegam aos humanos. Os principais reservatórios de contaminação são as aves e os ovos, sendo as cepas de *S. Typhimurium* e *S. Enteritidis*, os dois sorovares mais relatados em infecções humanas em todo o mundo (BENEVIDES *et al.*, 2020; DAR *et al.*, 2017; LI *et al.*, 2017; SOARES, 2014).

A incidência de surtos de salmonelose é bastante comum e provoca um alto impacto global na saúde pública. Isso implica, por ano, em aproximadamente 80,3 milhões de surtos de salmonelose transmitidos por alimentos no mundo, e cerca de 155 mil mortes (LETTINI *et al.*, 2016; LI *et al.*, 2017; MAJOWICZ *et al.*, 2010; MÜHLIG *et al.*, 2014).

No Brasil, não é possível saber o número preciso de hospitalizações causadas por salmonelose, porque é facultativo a notificação dos casos pelas unidades de saúde à rede nacional de laboratórios de saúde pública. Mas segundo dados do Ministério da Saúde, a salmonelose é considerada a infecção bacteriana mais comum no país, sendo *S. Typhimurium* o principal sorovar responsável por infecções sistêmicas em humanos (BRASIL, 2020; REIS *et al.*, 2018).

Os surtos contínuos de salmonelose tornam o gênero *Salmonella* um ponto focal de pesquisa para muitos profissionais, apesar da abundância de informações existentes (WERNICKI; NOWACZEK; URBAN-CHMIEL, 2017). A Figura 2.3 apresenta dados sobre surtos de salmonelose.

Figure 2.3 - Surtos causados por *Salmonella* nos EUA, UE e Brasil.



Fonte: Adaptado de Reis *et al.* (2018), CDC, 2021, Tack *et al.*, (2019), De Melo *et al.*, (2021), Neto *et al.*, (2021), (EFSA, 2022) e CDC, (2022).

2.5 IMPACTOS ECONÔMICOS E DE SAÚDE PÚBLICA CAUSADOS POR CONTAMINAÇÕES POR *SALMONELLA*

A persistência de *Salmonella* na indústria avícola pode proporcionar prejuízos econômicos substanciais em termos de mortalidade, redução do crescimento e perda na cadeia de produção de frangos de cortes e de ovos (BENEVIDES *et al.*, 2020; DAR *et al.*, 2017; KUANG *et al.*, 2015).

Segundo dados informados pelo Centro de Controle e Prevenção de Doenças (CDC) dos EUA, as perdas econômicas devido a contaminação por *Salmonella* em frangos foi estimado em torno de US\$ 2,8 bilhões por ano (SHCARFF, 2020).

As infecções em humanos, resultante de consumo de alimentos contaminados por *Salmonella* podem custar caro para a indústria avícola, para os governos e indivíduos infectados. O impacto econômico nos EUA vai desde as despesas hospitalares, morte até a perda de produtividade em relação ao afastamento do trabalho, gerando custos que variam de US\$ 1,1 bilhão a US\$ 11,5 bilhões, com base

na estimativa de 1,92 milhão casos notificados (WERNICKI; NOWACZEK; URBAN-CHMIEL, 2017).

Na UE, a Autoridade Europeia para a Segurança dos Alimentos (EFSA), estima um custo geral de contaminação por *Salmonella* de € 3 bilhões por ano (EFSA, 2014). No Brasil, os impactos econômicos devido às internações, perda de produtividade e lucros, decorrentes de surtos de salmonelose são praticamente desconhecidos, mas acredita-se que representam um grande ônus para a economia (MS/SVS, 2020).

A inativação ou redução da carga microbiana na produção primária de frangos é necessária para diminuir os riscos de contaminação humana. Os antibióticos promotores de crescimento, por muitos anos, foram utilizados com essa finalidade (DIBNER; RICHARDS, 2005).

2.6 USO DE ANTIBIÓTICOS PARA O CONTROLE DE PATÓGENOS NA INDÚSTRIA AVÍCOLA

Os antibióticos promotores de crescimento (APC) foram utilizados pela primeira vez por volta de 1950, quando foi descoberto que doses mínimas desses compostos poderiam aumentar o peso de aves, suínos e bovinos de corte (STOKSTAD; JUKES, 1950). Essa prática veio associada ao crescimento da população mundial e à responsabilidade de garantir alimentos seguros (ZISHIRI; MKHIZE; MUKARATIRWA, 2016).

Na indústria avícola, os APC são administrados na dieta do animal com a finalidade de aumentar a produção e a segurança. Os antibióticos atuam na microbiota intestinal do animal diminuindo a competição por nutrientes e reduzindo os metabólitos microbianos que deprimem o crescimento. Além disso, as vilosidades da parede intestinal ficam mais finas, melhorando a absorção de nutrientes e o desempenho no ganho de peso do animal (DIBNER; RICHARDS, 2005).

Os APC usados são frequentemente os mesmos ou pertencem a mesma classe farmacológica de antibióticos usados na medicina humana. Por essa razão, o efeito colateral mais preocupante desses compostos é a tendência evolutiva de clones resistentes, com consequências imprevisíveis para a saúde humana e animal (EFSA; ECDC, 2020).

A prática intensiva de APC em animais produtores de alimentos aumentou as preocupações quanto à questão da resistência bacteriana e conseqüente impacto na saúde humana. A possibilidade da propagação de cepas patogênicas resistentes, levou a restrições progressivas dessa prática em muitos países (CASEWELL *et al.*, 2003; EFSA; ECDC, 2020; LAI *et al.*, 2014; MAPA, 2021; MARSHALL; LEVY, 2011).

Desde de 1998, a UE, seguindo recomendações do Relatório de Swann de 1966 no Reino Unido, retirou alguns antibióticos como clortetraciclina, oxitetraciclina, penicilina, tilosina e sulfonamidas da lista de APC usados na avicultura (MARSHALL; LEVY, 2011). A indústria avícola recebeu muita pressão para interromper o uso total de APC e, em 2006, a UE concluiu o Regulamento 1831/2003 que proibiu o uso de todos os APC semelhantes aos antibióticos utilizados na terapia humana (DITTOE; RICKE; KIESS, 2018; MURPHY *et al.*, 2017).

A indústria avícola nos EUA iniciou a retirada dos APC, devido à preocupação do consumidor com o uso de antibióticos, mas também em razão dos requisitos de exportação livre de antibióticos (HUYGHEBAERT; DUCATELLE; IMMERSEEL, 2011). No entanto, nos EUA, ainda são utilizados tetraciclina, bacitracina, tilosina, salinomicina, virginiamicina e bambermicina em animais produtores de alimentos (DIARRA; MALOUIN, 2014). As tetraciclinas representam mais de dois terços dos APC administrados aos animais (GONZALEZ RONQUILLO; ANGELES HERNANDEZ, 2017).

O Brasil, preocupado com os impactos à saúde humana com desenvolvimento de resistência bacteriana, baseado em recomendações da Organização Mundial da Saúde (OMS) e da Organização Mundial da Saúde Animal (OIE); o MAPA, por meio da Secretaria de Defesa Agropecuária, iniciou a restrição de APC em 1998. Ao longo dos anos, algumas legislações foram elaboradas para restringir o uso de antimicrobianos que têm a finalidade de uso como melhorador de desempenho em animais produtores de alimentos e que também são importantes na medicina humana (Tabela 2.1) (MAPA, 2021).

Em dezembro de 2018 no Brasil, foi emitida a Portaria nº171 que proibia o uso dos antibióticos tilosina, lincomicina, virginiamicina, bacitracina e tiamulina. No entanto, na última IN nº 01/2020, não consta virginiamicina e bacitracina, o que leva a compreender que esses dois últimos ainda são permitidos como promotores de crescimento (MAPA, 2020a; MAPA; SDA, 2018).

Tabela 2.1 - Lista de substâncias proibidas no Brasil e legislação correspondente.

Substância proibidas	Legislação
Avoparcina	Of. Circ. DFPA nº 047/1998
Arsenicais e antimoniais	Portaria nº 31, 29/01/2002
Clorafenicol e nitrofuranos	IN nº 09, 27/06/2003
Olaquinox	IN nº 11, 24/11/2004
Carbadox	IN nº 35, 14/11/2005
Anfenicois, tetraciclina, β -lactâmicos, quinolonas, sulfonamidas	IN nº 26, 09/07/2009
Espiramicina, eritromicina	IN nº 14, 17/05/2012
Colistina	IN nº 45, 22/11/2016
Tilosina, lincomicina, tiamulina	IN nº 01, 13/01/2020

Fonte: Adaptado de MAPA, (2020b).

As diferenças nas políticas em relação ao uso de APC podem gerar barreiras comerciais para exportação de produtos de origem animal. Nos EUA, no Brasil e na China não há uma restrição total no uso de APC, portanto existe um consenso nas exportações entre esses países. Já para a UE, os países exportadores de carne de frango, terão que respeitar a proibição dos antibióticos que promovem crescimento (EUR, 2019; MARON; SMITH; NACHMAN, 2013).

O uso indiscriminado de antibióticos tem aumentado a resistência de *Salmonella*. A resistência bacteriana que ocorre em animais produtores de alimentos, pode se espalhar para os humanos não apenas por rotas de origem alimentar, mas também por rotas como a água ou outra contaminação ambiental, bem como por meio de contato direto com animais (EFSA; ECDC, 2020).

2.7 RESISTÊNCIA MICROBIANA

2.7.1 Resistência de *Salmonella* aos APC

Nas últimas décadas, foi observado um aumento da prevalência de isolados de *S. Typhimurium* resistentes aos antibióticos ampicilina, cloranfenicol, estreptomicina, sulfonamidas e tetraciclina (CRUMP *et al.*, 2015). Conforme citado anteriormente, *S. Typhimurium* é o sorovar mais isolado de surtos de origem alimentar e comumente encontrado como resistente a múltiplas drogas (EL-AZIZ, 2013).

O surgimento de *Salmonella* multirresistente, particularmente o sorovar Typhimurium, impõe enormes desafios às comunidades médicas no tratamento de

infecções. Um estudo, realizado na China em frangos de varejo, identificou 138 isolados de *S. Typhimurium*, dos quais 137 apresentaram resistência a pelo menos um antibiótico dos 15 testados (LI *et al.*, 2017).

Entre 1990 e 2016 no Brasil, segundo um estudo de Rodrigues *et al.* (2020), que avaliaram a resistência antimicrobiana de isolados de *Salmonella* em humanos e suínos, *S. Typhimurium* foi identificada como a cepa mais resistente a múltiplos antibióticos, correspondendo a 67% de todos os isolados do estudo.

Genes de resistência bacteriana de patógenos de origem alimentar foram identificados em humanos e animais, mais comumente genes de resistência de *Salmonella* (MARSHALL; LEVY, 2011). Portanto, para diminuir o risco de patógenos resistentes a antibióticos, com possível transmissão para consumidores humanos, é necessário explorar agentes alternativos com efeitos semelhantes aos APC (HUYGHEBAERT; DUCATELLE; IMMERSEEL, 2011), dentre os quais se destacam os ácidos orgânicos (AO)

2.8 ÁCIDOS ORGÂNICOS

2.8.1 Histórico e aplicações de AO na indústria de animais produtores de alimentos

Em vista da possibilidade de resistência de patógenos aos antibióticos, alternativas têm sido estudadas como agentes antimicrobianos (SCICUTELLA *et al.*, 2021). Entre eles, a literatura relata o uso de probióticos, prebióticos, enzimas, bacteriófagos, ervas, óleos essenciais e ácidos orgânicos como promotores de crescimento, para agir na redução de patologias no TGI e, conseqüentemente, impactar para melhoria no ganho de peso de animais de corte (DITTOE; RICKE; KIESS, 2018; KHAN; IQBAL, 2016; LEE; KIM; KIM, 2015; MURPHY *et al.*, 2017).

Dentre os principais agentes, os ácidos orgânicos (AO) provaram ter uma ação semelhante à dos antibióticos e se tornaram um dos substituintes mais utilizados na indústria de animais de corte (UPADHAYA; LEE; KIM, 2014; WALES; ALLEN; DAVIES, 2010).

Os AO, também referidos como ácidos graxos voláteis ou ácidos fracos, são substâncias que contêm um ou mais grupos carboxilas (COOH) em sua molécula.

Eles são classificados com base no tamanho da cadeia de carbono, podendo ser AO de cadeia curta (C1 a C7, como os ácidos fórmico, acético, butírico, propiônico), cadeia média (C8 a C12, como ácidos caproico, caprílico, cáprico e laurico) e cadeia longa (C13 – C32, como ácidos linolênico e linoleico). Os AO de cadeia curta são naturalmente produzidos por fermentação da microbiota presente no TGI de animais (DIBNER; BUTTIN, 2002; MOORE *et al.*, 2017), enquanto que os AO de cadeia média e longa precisam ser ingeridos com a alimentação (SCICUTELLA *et al.*, 2021). AO são substâncias abundantes na natureza como componentes naturais de tecidos, resultante da atividade sintética de vegetais e animais e são compostos reconhecidos como seguro (GRAS - *Generally Recognized as safe*) pela *Food and Drug Administration* (FDA) para produto cárneos (MANI-LÓPEZ; GARCÍA; LÓPEZ-MALO, 2012).

Esses compostos orgânicos, principalmente os de cadeia curta, têm inúmeras aplicações na indústria de alimentos, na nutrição animal, em produtos farmacêuticos e cosméticos (GUAN *et al.*, 2016). Por exemplo, os sais de cálcio, sódio e amônio de ácido propiônico são bons conservantes na alimentação humana e animal, além de ser precursor para síntese de aromas e fragrâncias artificiais (AHMADI; KHOSRAVI-DARANI; MORTAZAVIAN, 2017). Os ácidos málico e cítrico têm um grande potencial no mercado como temperos para alimentos (DAI *et al.*, 2018; LIU *et al.*, 2016; MANI-LÓPEZ; GARCÍA; LÓPEZ-MALO, 2012; SINGH DHILLON *et al.*, 2011), o ácido succínico é utilizado como intensificador de sabor e pode ser incorporado na massa do pão para dar plasticidade. (SAXENA *et al.*, 2017).

Os AO de base petroquímica e seus sais vêm sendo utilizados na prevenção da saúde de animais de corte, apresentando eficiência na manutenção do peso corporal ao inibir a colonização por microrganismos patogênicos. Eles são uma boa alternativa aos APC pois, além de possuir atividade antimicrobiana, melhoraram a digestibilidade dos nutrientes no TGI do animal, intensificando as secreções pancreáticas, promovendo aumento da atividade proteolítica e da taxa de conversão dos alimentos (DITTOE; RICKE; KIESS, 2018; NG *et al.*, 2015).

2.8.2 Aplicação de AO como promotor de crescimento

Estes compostos podem ser administrados aos animais por meio da ração ou podem ser diluídos na água de consumo (MANI-LÓPEZ; GARCÍA; LÓPEZ-MALO, 2012). Em geral, a suplementação de AO tem sido relatada como tendo efeitos promotores de crescimento em frangos de corte. Esses efeitos podem ser atribuídos a uma melhor utilização da ração, redução da carga microbiana patogênica e criação de um ambiente propício para o crescimento de bactérias benéficas. Os ácidos orgânicos têm demonstrado ser uma opção eficaz para o aumento do desempenho produtivo desses animais (KHAN *et al.*, 2022).

Entre os AO mais utilizados para preservação da saúde de animais, destacam-se os ácidos cítrico, acético, láctico, propiônico, succínico, fórmico, butírico. A maior parte desses compostos é sintetizada em grande escala pela indústria química, usando unidades químicas simples, principalmente derivados de recursos fósseis (BECKER; WITTMANN, 2015; WANG *et al.*, 2016).

O uso de uma mistura de AO (fumárico, cítrico, málico, cáprico e caprílico) na ração de galinhas poedeiras possui um efeito positivo na digestão e absorção de nutrientes pelas aves, o que pode levar a um aumento no desenvolvimento dos frangos e uma produção de ovos mais resistentes (LEE; KIM; KIM, 2015).

Mistura de AO de cadeia curta (fórmico, acético e propiônico) combinado com AO de cadeia média melhoraram, de uma forma geral, o desempenho, imunidade sérica, morfologia intestinal e microbiota de leitões, uma vez que esses ácidos possuem efeito antimicrobiano e ajudam a reduzir a colonização de patógenos no TGI dos animais (LONG *et al.*, 2018).

A administração de ácido láctico e fórmico à ração de suínos aumenta a atividade das enzimas digestivas e reduz a prevalência de *Salmonella* no TGI do animal (CREUS *et al.*, 2007). A suplementação com ácido butírico melhora a digestibilidade dos alimentos proporcionando um impacto positivo no desempenho do crescimento do animal (PIVA *et al.*, 2002).

2.8.3 Aplicação direta de AO em alimentos

Durante o processo de abate, as carcaças dos animais estão sujeitas a altos riscos de contaminação por material fecal presente nas penas e pele, além de vazamentos de conteúdo intestinal durante a evisceração e contaminação proveniente dos equipamentos e ambientes de processamento (GOLDEN; ROTHROCK; MISHRA, 2021). A etapa final antes do congelamento dos produtos é o corte, tornando a eficácia da descontaminação microbiana essencial para a qualidade dos produtos avícolas (ZHU *et al.*, 2016).

AO podem ser utilizados para descontaminar ingredientes crus antes de incorporá-los no preparo de alimentos, mas também podem ser aplicados diretamente no produto final, como forma de prolongar a vida útil dos produtos (CARRIQUE-MAS; BEDFORD; DAVIES, 2007). A aplicação de AO em superfícies de produtos de carne é um exemplo de tratamento direto no produto, além de ser um método simples, barato e ter demonstrado boa eficiência (MANI-LÓPEZ; GARCÍA; LÓPEZ-MALO, 2012).

A imersão de peito de frango em ácido láctico, fumárico e málico a 3% (p/v) reduziu efetivamente a contagem de coquetel de *Salmonella*, mas de acordo com os autores desse trabalho, pode causar alterações sensoriais na carne devido à alta concentração praticada (FERNÁNDEZ *et al.*, 2021). A vida útil de coxas de frangos lavadas com ácido acético (2% - p/v) foi estendida em pelo menos dois dias em comparação ao produto sem tratamento, reduzindo mesófilos, psicotróficos e *Listeria monocytogenes* em 1,31 log UFC mL⁻¹ após oito dias de armazenamento (GONZALEZ-FANDOS; HERRERA, 2014).

A lavagem da superfície de carnes com ácido levulínico, acético e láctico a 2% (p/v) para descontaminação de bactérias patogênicas (*Escherichia coli* em carne bovina, *Salmonella* em frango e *Listeria monocytogenes* em peru) reduziu as contagens dos patógenos após 24 h de armazenamento a 4 °C. Apenas o ácido levulínico não promoveu redução eficaz dos patógenos (CARPENTER; SMITH; BROADBENT, 2011).

Sais de acetato e butirato de sódio a 2,5% (p/v) podem promover uma redução de até 4 log UFC mL⁻¹ de *Salmonella* Typhimurium em meio preparado com frango cru, provando serem antimicrobianos eficientes para reduzir a contaminação

bacteriana e prolongar a vida útil de produtos derivados de frango (MILILLO; RICKE, 2010).

Quando antimicrobianos são utilizados como intervenções de descontaminação, podem ocorrer efeitos indesejáveis na cor, textura e desenvolvimento de sabores desagradáveis nas carcaças tratadas, o que pode afetar potencialmente a aceitação do consumidor (RAMIREZ-HERNANDEZ; BRASHEARS; SANCHEZ-PLATA, 2018). Por isso é importante avaliar a menor concentração do ácido com efeito inibidor.

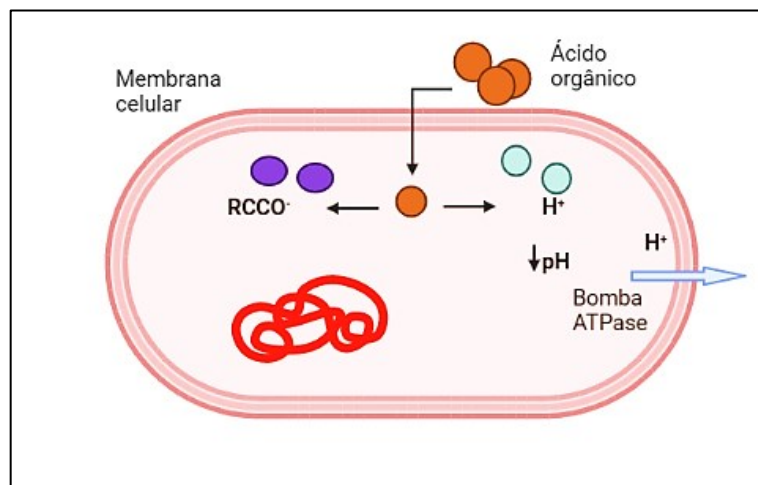
2.8.4 Ação antimicrobiana dos AO

Conforme salientado anteriormente, existem muitos AO com diferentes propriedades físicas e químicas, muitos dos quais são usados como aditivos na água potável ou nas rações, contribuindo para reduzir a contaminação por patógenos (CARRIQUE-MAS; BEDFORD; DAVIES, 2007; HUYGHEBAERT; DUCATELLE; IMMERSEEL, 2011).

Os AO são ácidos fracos, portanto, não se dissociam completamente em água. A atividade antimicrobiana desses ácidos está diretamente ligada ao pH ambiente e à constante de dissociação do ácido (pK_a), ou seja, à medida que o pH ambiente diminui, a concentração de ácido na forma protonada aumenta, o que resulta na redução da polaridade da molécula e o aumento da difusão do ácido pela membrana celular (MANI-LÓPEZ; GARCÍA; LÓPEZ-MALO, 2012).

Após a forma protonada do ácido permear a membrana celular, o ambiente intracelular mais alcalino (pH 7,5 - 7,8), causa a dissociação do ácido fraco, liberando H^+ e tornando o meio citoplasmático mais ácido. O resultado é uma perturbação no gradiente de pH, que traz consequências adversas na transferência de nutrientes, supressão de enzimas como descarboxilases e catalases, além de causar danos à molécula de DNA (EŞ *et al.*, 2017; HUYGHEBAERT; DUCATELLE; IMMERSEEL, 2011). Para manter o gradiente de prótons funcional, a adenosina trifosfato (ATP) deve ser consumida para expulsar o excesso de H^+ da célula, reduzindo o ATP disponível para o metabolismo celular e, conseqüentemente, inibindo o crescimento (CORAL *et al.*, 2008; LUNA-FLORES *et al.*, 2017). Uma representação do mecanismo de ação é apresentada na Figura 2.4.

Figure 2.4 - Esquema de inibição de ácido orgânico em microrganismos. RCCO^- = íon radical.



Fonte: Criado em biorender.com

Nem todos os ácidos têm ação antimicrobiana, na verdade, os ácidos orgânicos associados a essa atividade específica são ácidos de cadeia curta contendo de dois a seis carbonos (DIBNER; BUTTIN, 2002).

Já foi relatado que atividade antimicrobiana dos AO em aves parece ser limitada ao intestino anterior do animal (papo, proventrículo e moela), sendo que a maior parte do efeito é devido à formação de um ambiente ácido no papo (região localizada logo após o pescoço) dos frangos (RICKE, 2003). A estratégia é manter o pH do papo e proventrículo baixo, pois o papo atua como um filtro contra microrganismos patogênicos. Assim, uma quantidade menor de patógenos irá migrar para as partes posteriores do intestino do animal (VON ENGELHARDT *et al.*, 1989).

O pH no TGI do frango é bastante variável e vai depender do pH da água e da ração, conteúdo de fibras da ração e tempo de fermentação dos substratos pela microflora natural. O pH no papo do frango pode variar de 3,8 a 6,9, com uma média de pH 4,5 (COX *et al.*, 1972). Já no proventrículo e moela, o pH varia entre 3,5 a 4,5, no intestino delgado o pH médio é de 6,5 e nos cecos o pH é em torno de 5,7 (GIANNENAS *et al.*, 2014; HUME *et al.*, 1993; MABELEBELE *et al.*, 2013; RODRIGUES; CHOCT, 2018; WALES; ALLEN; DAVIES, 2010).

Conforme descrito, a eficácia do AO está associada ao seu pK_a . O valor do pK_a do ácido define o pH no qual 50% do ácido está dissociado em solução. AO com pK_a entre 3 e 5 possuem melhor atividade antimicrobiana como, por exemplo, o ácido propiônico que possui um pK_a de 4,89 e pode ter atividade antimicrobiana eficaz em pH baixo (DIBNER; BUTTIN, 2002; KHAN; IQBAL, 2016).

2.8.5 Ácido propiônico (AP)

O AP é um ácido graxo de cadeia curta (C-3), formado no corpo humano e de animais como um intermediário do metabolismo dos ácidos graxos de cadeia longa e metabólito final da fermentação anaeróbica de carboidratos por bactérias, principalmente, do gênero *Propionibacterium* (AL-LAHHAM *et al.*, 2010; FERNANDEZ-GARCIA; MCGREGOR, 1994).

O AP e seus sais são compostos aprovados como substâncias seguras (GRAS), registrados para a conservação de alimentos e rações. AP são considerados antibacterianos e antimicóticos, bastante utilizados para desinfecção de grãos armazenados e também são adicionados na água potável de animais produtores de alimentos (HAQUE *et al.*, 1970; RODRIGUEZ *et al.*, 2014).

Segundo Mani-López e García; López-Malo (2012) não são prescritos limites superiores para o uso desse aditivo como conservante de alimentos, também não há registrado limites de ingestão diária em mg/kg de peso corporal para humanos. Os aspectos físico-químicos do AP estão apresentados na Tabela 2.2.

Além das características antimicrobianas, o AP é um importante intermediário químico na síntese de produtos farmacêuticos, na fabricação de polímeros, pesticidas e. Geralmente, a utilização global de AP representa cerca de 52% para preservação de grãos e ração animal, 18% para conservação de alimentos, 16% para a síntese de herbicidas e 10% na produção de acetato de propionato de celulose (DISHISHA *et al.*, 2013).

Tabela 2.2 - Propriedade físico-químicas do ácido propiônico.

Nome IUPAC	Ácido propanoico
Outras nomenclaturas	Ácido etanocarboxílico, ácido propiônico
Nº CAS*	79-09-4
Fórmula molecular	C ₃ H ₆ O ₂
Massa molar	74.07854 g mol ⁻¹
Aparência	Líquido incolor
Odor	Ligeiramente rançoso
Ponto de fusão	-21 °C
Ponto de ebulição	141 °C
Densidade	990 kg/m ³
Solubilidade em água	Miscível
<i>pKa</i>	4.89
Viscosidade	10 mPa·s

*Número de registro único de um produto químico no banco de dados *Chemical Abstracts Service*
 Fonte: Adaptada de EŞ et al. (2017).

2.8.5.1 Ácido Propiônico: Produção e Mercado

Como consequência das diversas aplicações do AP, a produção global é de aproximadamente 450 mil toneladas por ano e era estimado um crescimento na produção a uma velocidade de 2,7% ao ano, que alcançaria um mercado de US\$ 1,53 bilhões em 2020 (GONZALEZ-GARCIA *et al.*, 2017; LUNA-FLORES *et al.*, 2017; WANG *et al.*, 2013). A maior parte da produção de AP é realizada a partir de reações utilizando derivados petroquímicos, como por exemplo, propeno, propanol, propionaldeído. Na produção sintética, o valor comercial gira em torno de US\$ 1,0/kg (EŞ *et al.*, 2017; STOWERS; COX; RODRIGUEZ, 2014).

Quatro empresas dominam 90% da produção de AP no mundo, principalmente, por rotas petroquímicas. As empresas são a *Badische Anilin & Soda Fabrik* (BASF) com fábricas na Alemanha e na China, a *Dow Chemical Fermentation Company*, a *Eastman Chemical* nos EUA e a *Perstorp* na Suécia (GONZALEZ-GARCIA *et al.*, 2017).

Apesar da maior produção derivar do petróleo, preocupações com a disponibilidade e preço do petróleo, o uso de reagentes tóxicos, a alta demanda de energia para a conversão e as questões ambientais para reduzir as emissões de gases do efeito estufa, têm promovido investigações para substituição dos recursos

fósseis por alternativas renováveis. Desta forma, a utilização de fontes de carbono renováveis em processos fermentativos para a produção de AP, tornam-se mais atrativos (AMMAR *et al.*, 2020; FENG *et al.*, 2011; WANG *et al.*, 2012; ZHANG; YANG, 2009; ZHU *et al.*, 2012).

2.8.5.2 Produção biotecnológica do ácido propiônico

A produção do AP a partir de vias biotecnológicas já é antiga, a primeira pesquisa teve início em 1878 por Albert Fitz e desde então, tem atraído cada vez mais a atenção da comunidade científica (GONZALEZ-GARCIA *et al.*, 2017; GUAN *et al.*, 2015; LIU *et al.*, 2012a; ZHANG; YANG, 2009).

Na produção do AP via processos fermentativos, utilizam-se bactérias pertencentes aos gêneros *Propionibacterium* spp, *Veillonella* spp., *Fusobacterium* spp. e *Selenomonas ruminantium*, sendo as bactérias do gênero *Propionibacterium* as mais avaliadas nesses processos (FENG *et al.*, 2011; WANG *et al.*, 2015).

Propionibacterium são bactérias Gram-positivas, anaeróbias facultativas, não formadoras de esporos, possuem alto teor de guanina-citosina (GC), são geralmente catalase positivas, semelhantes a bastonete e crescem otimamente na temperatura de 30 °C a 37 °C e em pH entre e 6.0 a 7.0. Essas bactérias podem metabolizar diferentes fontes de carbono como a lactose, sacarose, ácido láctico, glicose, xilose e glicerol em ácido propiônico (COUSIN *et al.*, 2011; DISHISHA; ALVAREZ; HATTI-KAUL, 2012; GUAN *et al.*, 2015; LIU *et al.*, 2012a; LUNA-FLORES *et al.*, 2017; WANG *et al.*, 2013).

As cepas típicas produtoras de AP são *Propionibacterium freudenreichii*, *Propionibacterium acidipropionici*, *Propionibacterium thoenii*, *Propionibacterium shermanii* e *Propionibacterium beijingense*. As bactérias *P. freudenreichii* e *P. acidipropionici* são as mais amplamente estudadas (GUAN *et al.*, 2015; LIU *et al.*, 2012a).

P. freudenreichii, além da produção de AP, são usadas como culturas *starter* para o amadurecimento de queijos suíços e são conhecidas também pela produção de exopolissacarídeos, vitamina B12, folato, riboflavina e bacteriocinas (DEPTULA *et al.*, 2017; DISHISHA *et al.*, 2015; GUAN *et al.*, 2015).

A maioria das bacteriocinas produzidas por bactérias do ácido propiônico, *propionic acid bacteria* (PAB), como propionicina T1, propionicina F e peptídeo antimicrobiano ativado por protease, *protease-activated antimicrobial peptide* (PAMP), possui espectro estreito, inibindo apenas bactérias ligadas ao seu produtor, como outras *Propionibacterium* (FAYE *et al.*, 2000). A propionicina T1 e a PAMP são produzidas pelas cepas *Propionibacterium jensenii* e *P. thoenii*, respectivamente, e não foram identificadas em *P. freudenreichii* (FAYE *et al.*, 2004). A propionicina F, produzida por *P. freudenreichii*, possui uma ação bactericida intraespecífica, ou seja, inativa apenas cepas de *P. freudenreichii* (BREDE *et al.*, 2004). Além disso, as bacteriocinas são produzidas em quantidades muito baixas quando as células são cultivadas em meio líquido, o que limita sua utilidade em aplicações práticas (HOLO *et al.*, 2002).

Segundo Parizzi *et al.* (2012), as espécies de *Propionibacterium* produzem o AP como produto primário da fermentação e parcialmente associado ao crescimento, com fase *lag* em torno de 24 h. Além de AP, quantidades significativas de outros ácidos como, acético, succínico e láctico, também são produzidos, os quais diminuem o rendimento e dificultam a purificação do AP (WANG *et al.*, 2013).

Na biossíntese de AP a glicose é transportada para o citoplasma celular em direção a via glicolítica. Existem duas vias; a via *Embden-Meyerhof-Parnas* (EMP) e a via da hexose monofosfato (HMP), convertendo a glicose em Fosfoenolpiruvato, um intermediário rico em energia que é convertido em piruvato e oxaloacetato. A maior parte do piruvato é convertido em AP pelo ciclo de Wood-Werkman e o restante flui para a formação de AA. O oxaloacetato também é utilizado na via de formação do AS (XU; SHI; JIANG, 2011). Em seguida, no ciclo de *Wood-Werkman*, o piruvato é convertido pela ação da enzima piruvato oxidase em Acetil-Coa ou em Oxaloacetato (OAA), por uma reação de transcarboxilação entre piruvato e metilmalonil-CoA. Acetil-CoA formado é convertido em acetato por meio da fosfotransacetilase e do acetato quinase. Em seguida, o OAA é convertido em malato, fumarato e succinato. A enzima propionil-CoA: succinil-CoA transferase catalisa a reação entre o succinato e propionil-CoA resultando em propionato e succinil-CoA. Metilmalonil-CoA formado a partir da conversão de succinil-CoA pela metilmalonil-CoA mutase é utilizado em uma reação com o piruvato para a produção de propionil-CoA. Por fim, propionil-CoA é convertido em propionato pela propionil-CoA carboxilase (Figura 2.5) (AMMAR *et al.*, 2014;

GONZALEZ-GARCIA *et al.*, 2020; PIVETEAU, 1999). Essa via limita o rendimento de AP em $0,55 \text{ g g}^{-1}$ (AP/substrato), quando a glicose ou a sacarose são catabolizadas via glicólise (STOWERS; COX; RODRIGUEZ, 2014).

Estequiometricamente, 1,5 mols de glicose podem produzir 2 mols de AP, 1 mol de ácido acético (AA), 1 mol de CO_2 e 1 mol de H_2O . A reação está apresentada na Equação 2.1 (WOOD, 1981).

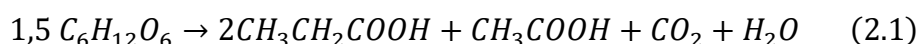
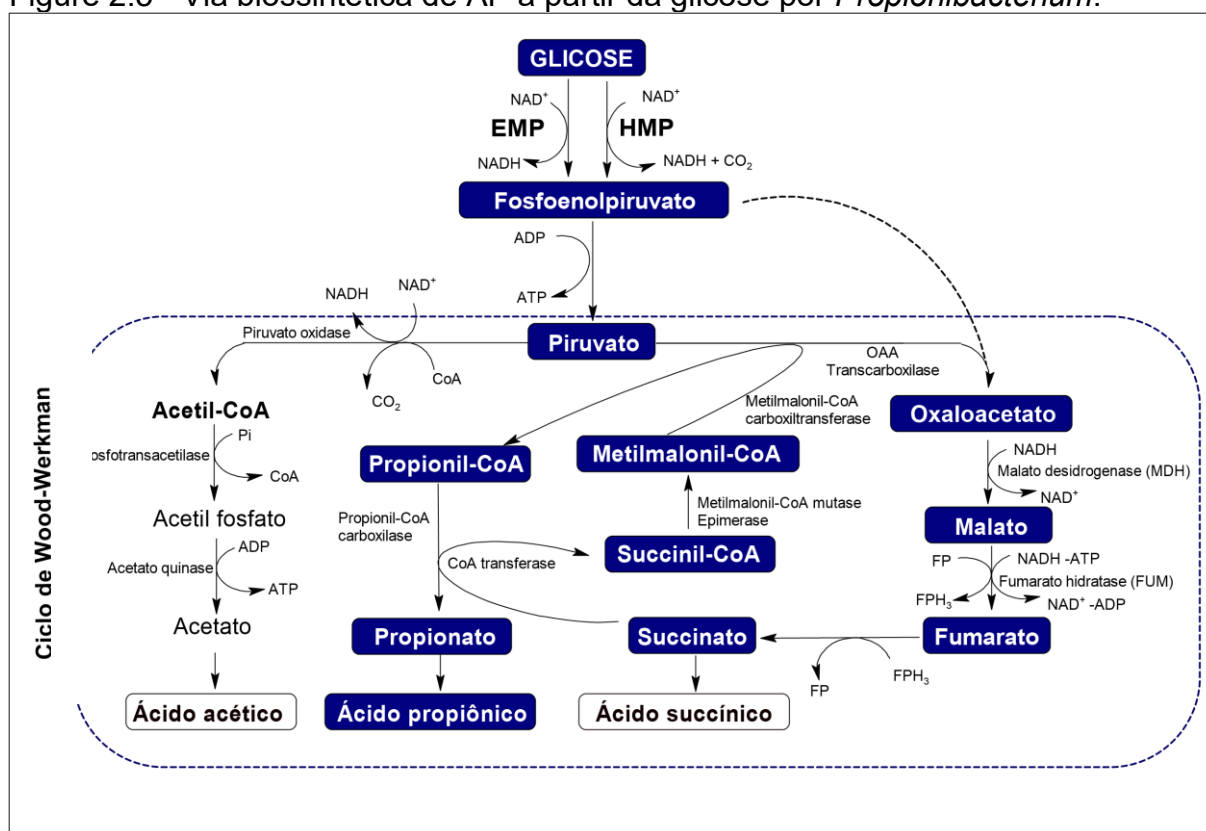


Figure 2.5 - Via biossintética de AP a partir da glicose por *Propionibacterium*.



Fonte: Adaptada de Zhuge *et al.* (2013).

O AP produzido por fermentação é uma opção verde, ambientalmente seguro, além disso, o produto da fermentação pode ser rotulado como natural (LI *et al.*, 2021). O custo do AP produzido por fermentação tem variações, dependendo dos substratos utilizados, da energia requerida na fermentação, dos processamentos de recuperação e purificação do produto (FENG *et al.*, 2011). Geralmente, o valor comercial do AP por via biológica está entre US\$ 1,5 a 2,0/kg (LIU *et al.*, 2012a).

Apesar dos benefícios, a biossíntese de AP por sistemas convencionais de fermentação, proporciona baixas concentrações do produto final, baixos rendimento e produtividade, tornando difícil a competição com a via petroquímica (ZHU *et al.*, 2010). Além disso, o produto final pode proporcionar inibição da *Propionibacterium* durante o processo (GUAN *et al.*, 2015; STOWERS; COX; RODRIGUEZ, 2014b).

Segundo Luna-Flores *et al.* (2017), para que a biossíntese de AP seja viável e competitiva com a produção petroquímica, é necessário atingir uma produtividade volumétrica de AP de $2 \text{ g L}^{-1} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$, rendimento de $0,6 \text{ g g}^{-1}$ (AP/substrato) e a concentração final de AP deve ser aproximadamente de 100 g L^{-1} (GONZALEZ-GARCIA *et al.*, 2017).

Visando atingir melhores resultados, iniciar o processo com uma alta concentração celular e abordar sistemas combinados como por exemplo, a fermentação descontínua sequencial com reciclo de células, pode ser viável para aumentar a produção de AP (DISHISHA *et al.*, 2013; RODRIGUEZ *et al.*, 2014).

Conforme já mencionado, a suplementação dietética de AO na água potável ou nas rações para frangos de corte, com o objetivo de inibir o crescimento de patógenos, demonstra benefícios significativos semelhante aos APC na melhoria do ganho de peso e eficiência alimentar (GADDE *et al.*, 2017; HUYGHEBAERT; DUCATELLE; IMMERSEEL, 2011). O AP também apresenta esses benefícios, permitindo alterações fisiológicas associada à mucosa intestinal, melhorando a absorção de nutrientes e a saúde intestinal, pois os ácidos orgânicos de cadeia curta são também uma fonte de energia direta para o metabolismo das células (GADDE *et al.*, 2017).

2.8.5.3 Ação antimicrobiana do AP

Já foi elucidado que o AP aumenta a utilização de proteínas em dietas para frangos de corte, melhorando o rendimento na produção de carcaça. A substituição de antibióticos por sais desse ácido mostra um efeito benéfico cumulativo no ganho de peso por esses animais (HAQUE *et al.*, 1970).

Uma série de estudos avaliaram os efeitos antimicrobianos de misturas de AP e outros ácidos, ou misturas de AP e seus sais, adicionados nas rações de aves de produção como alternativo aos APC (ALSHAWABKEH; TABBAA, 2002; CAVE, 1984;

HINTON JR, 1999; IBA; BERCHIERI, 1995; KWON; RICKE, 1998b; MOORE *et al.*, 2017; NAVA *et al.*, 2009; OLIVEIRA *et al.*, 2019; SENKOYLU *et al.*, 2007). Porém, esses estudos nem sempre fornecem informações completas sobre a composição e a seleção das substâncias para as combinações. Além de que, os dados sobre a atividade inibitória do AP, especificamente contra *S. Typhimurium* são limitados.

Pesquisa foi realizada para avaliar o efeito inibitório de AP contra *Salmonella Gallinarum* na dieta de frangos. O número de culturas positivas no ceco dos animais, que receberam alimentação com adição de 1,8% (v/m) de AP em 2 kg de ração, foi significativamente menor do que nos demais grupos testados (ALSHAWABKEH; TABBAA, 2002).

Kwon *et al.* (1998) relataram que AP tamponado em pH 5,0 (APT) reduziu o crescimento de *S. Typhimurium* na concentração de 3% (v/v) de AP em 4 mL de meio. Os autores afirmaram que o efeito inibitório do APT contra *Salmonella* aumentou com a redução do pH, sugerindo que as condições ambientais podem influenciar na ação do ácido.

Outro estudo de Kwon e Ricke (1998b) avaliaram a sobrevivência de *S. Typhimurium* expostas ao AP (0 – 200 mM) em pH 5,0. Os autores observaram uma redução de 3 ciclos logarítmicos após 10 dias de contato em 50 mM de AP e em 200 mM, após 4 dias, não houve germinação da cepa.

As concentrações individuais dos AO necessárias para atingir a atividade antimicrobiana podem exceder o nível aceitável de ingestão pelas aves, pois o sabor forte dos ácidos pode diminuir sua palatabilidade. Por exemplo, foi relatado que o AP pode diminuir o consumo de ração e o ganho de peso do animal, se for adicionado a uma concentração de 90 mM (PEH *et al.*, 2020). Contudo, a combinação de AO permite reduzir as concentrações individuais dos componentes para atingir uma atividade antimicrobiana eficaz. As misturas de ácidos representam uma série de valores de *pKa* e são usadas devido ao espectro mais amplo de atividade (HUYGHEBAERT; DUCATELLE; IMMENSEEL, 2011).

2.9 RESPOSTA DE TOLERÂNCIA DE *SALMONELLA* AOS ÁCIDOS

Geralmente espécies Gram-negativas apresentam resistência aos AO. A tolerância aos ácidos está ligada ao fato de que esses microrganismos se encontram

em ambientes onde há produção de AO, resultado da fermentação da microbiota intestinal benéfica (BAIK *et al.*, 1996; DITTOE; RICKE; KIESS, 2018; KWON; RICKE, 1998a).

S. Typhimurium, por exemplo, além de sofrer inibição por AO, tem a capacidade a se adaptar e tolerar ambientes ácidos, podendo inclusive usar os AO como fonte de energia, em condições de crescimento aeróbico, mas requer um tempo de adaptação considerável entre 18 a 20 h (ÁLVAREZ-ORDÓÑEZ *et al.*, 2009, 2010; BEARSON, 1997; GREENACRE *et al.*, 2003; KWON; RICKE, 1998a).

O sistema que aumenta a tolerância de organismos entéricos aos AO é chamado de resposta de tolerância a ácidos (ATR- *acid tolerance response*). Essa resposta pode ser induzida na fase exponencial ou estacionária de crescimento da bactéria, em um processo de dois estágios acionados em pH diferentes. O primeiro estágio é protagonizado em pH 6,0 (choque pré-ácido), envolvendo a síntese de sistemas de homeostase de pH, que alcalinizam o citoplasma. O segundo estágio (choque-pós-ácido) é ativado quando o pH cai abaixo de 4,5 (BEARSON, 1997).

Na fase exponencial, esse sistema envolve a indução de pelo menos 50 proteínas produzidas para reparar o dano celular, chamadas de proteínas de choque ácido. Na fase estacionária, uma resposta é induzível pelo choque ácido, assim como na fase exponencial, e outra resposta de tolerância ao ácido é induzida automaticamente por um fator sigma alternativo (σ^S), codificado pelo gene *rpoS* e responsável pela síntese de outras proteínas, como um sistema geral de resistência para lidar com qualquer estresse, como por exemplo, quando as células entram na fase estacionária lidando com a falta de nutrientes (BAIK *et al.*, 1996; MANI-LÓPEZ; GARCÍA; LÓPEZ-MALO, 2012; SOO LEE *et al.*, 1995; YUK; SCHNEIDER, 2006).

Em *S. Typhimurium* já foi relatado que a ATR permite que a bactéria sobreviva em ambientes ácidos potencialmente letais, com pH até 3,0 (KWON; RICKE, 1998a; MANI-LÓPEZ; GARCÍA; LÓPEZ-MALO, 2012).

Álvarez-Ordóñez *et al.* (2009) determinaram a capacidade da *S. Typhimurium* ativar seu mecanismo ATR após o crescimento em meio BHI acidificado a pH 4,5 em diferentes ácidos. Nesse estudo, as bactérias expostas ao ácido apresentaram tempos de geração e de fase *lag* significativamente maiores do que os controles ($p < 0,05$), indicando que o patógeno foi capaz de adquirir ATR.

No caso particular de *S. Typhimurium*, existem poucas informações disponíveis sobre os mecanismos de resistência e virulência relacionado aos AO. Ainda não está claro, de acordo com a literatura consultada, até que tempo a exposição aos AO pode aumentar a virulência dessa bactéria (GREENACRE *et al.*, 2003; YUK; SCHNEIDER, 2006) (ÁLVAREZ-ORDÓÑEZ *et al.*, 2009; GREENACRE *et al.*, 2003; GROISMAN; MOUSLIM, 2000; KANELLOS; BURRIEL, 2005; YUK; SCHNEIDER, 2006).

2.10 MICROBIOLOGIA PREDITIVA

A partir de observações experimentais é possível prever respostas do crescimento microbiano aos fatores ambientais por meio da microbiologia preditiva (ROSS; MCMEEKIN, 1994).

Os modelos de microbiologia preditiva são reconhecidos como ferramentas matemáticas úteis para investigar a segurança e a qualidade microbiológica dos alimentos, e são componentes relevantes na avaliação quantitativa do risco microbiano. A aplicação de modelos preditivos ajuda a gestão da segurança dos alimentos a tomar decisões em um curto espaço de tempo em relação ao risco microbiano, desde a planta de processamento até a estimativa da vida útil dos produtos (POSSAS; VALERO; PÉREZ-RODRÍGUEZ, 2022).

A microbiologia preditiva é considerada uma potente ferramenta para descrever o efeito de diferentes condições ambientais sobre determinada população microbiana (GEERAERD; VALDRAMIDIS; VAN IMPE, 2005). Seu conceito combina microbiologia, matemática, estatística e tem como objetivo prever e descrever o crescimento ou inativação de microrganismos, usando modelos matemáticos (ROSS; MCMEEKIN, 1994).

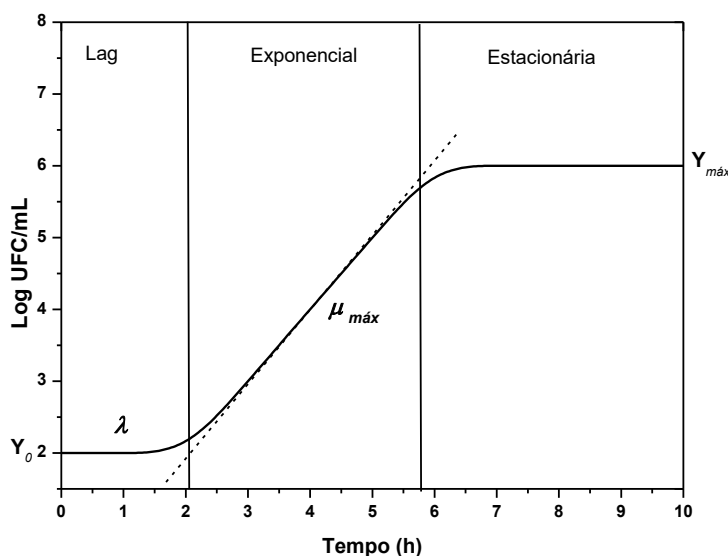
A modelagem preditiva é descrita conforme o comportamento do microrganismo, de tal modo que existem modelos de crescimento e inativação, que geralmente é realizada em dois estágios. Primeiro, as curvas são geradas em diferentes níveis dos fatores ambientais de interesse (temperatura, pH, atividade da água, etc.). Em seguida, um modelo primário é ajustado aos dados experimentais para estimar os parâmetros do modelo, em uma dada condição ambiental. Após os primeiros ajustes, os efeitos das condições ambientais nos parâmetros do modelo

primário são descritos por um modelo secundário (COTON; LEGUERINEL, 2014; GRIFFITHS, 2005).

2.10.1 Modelo Primário de crescimento

O crescimento microbiano pode ser descrito em três fases: uma fase de latência (fase *lag*), período no qual ocorre a adaptação das células microbianas ao ambiente, seguido de uma fase de crescimento exponencial e em seguida uma fase estacionária, na qual a população máxima é atingida, apresentando assim, um comportamento sigmoidal (Figura 2.6) (ISABELLE; ANDRÉ, 2006).

Figure 2.6 - Curva típica de crescimento microbiano. Fase lag (λ), velocidade específica máxima de crescimento (μ_{max}), população inicial (y_0) e população máxima (y_{max}).



Fonte: Adaptado de Isabelle; André (2006).

O crescimento microbiano é avaliado sob condições definidas e controladas. As respostas são resumidas na forma de equações que podem prever o comportamento microbiano sob condições que ainda não foram testadas, o que permite antecipar consequências para a segurança biológica de um produto e desta forma, atender os níveis de segurança requeridos (ROSS; MCMEEKIN, 1994).

2.10.1.1 Modelo de Baranyi & Roberts (BAR)

Modelos matemáticos para prever o crescimento microbiano têm sido propostos na literatura, entre eles, destaca-se o modelo proposto por Baranyi; Roberts (1994). Esse modelo é amplamente utilizado na microbiologia preditiva por ter boa capacidade de ajuste, é fácil de usar por já estar inserido em *softwares* disponíveis, é aplicável em condições ambientais diversas e a maior parte dos parâmetros do modelo são biologicamente interpretáveis. Esse modelo introduz um parâmetro definido pelo estado fisiológico das células (h_0), que é determinado pelo produto da velocidade específica máxima de crescimento (μ_{max}) e a fase *lag* (λ) (BARANYI *et al.*, 1995; BARANYI; ROBERTS, 1994). As equações do modelo de Baranyi e Roberts são descritas a seguir:

$$y = y_0 + \mu_{max}F - \ln \left\{ 1 + \frac{e^{[\mu_{max}F] - 1}}{e^{(y_{max} - y_0)}} \right\} \quad (2.2)$$

$$F(t) = t + \left(\frac{1}{\mu_{max}} \right) \ln \left(e^{(-\mu_{max}t)} + e^{(-h_0)} - e^{[(-\mu_{max}t) - h_0]} \right) \quad (2.3)$$

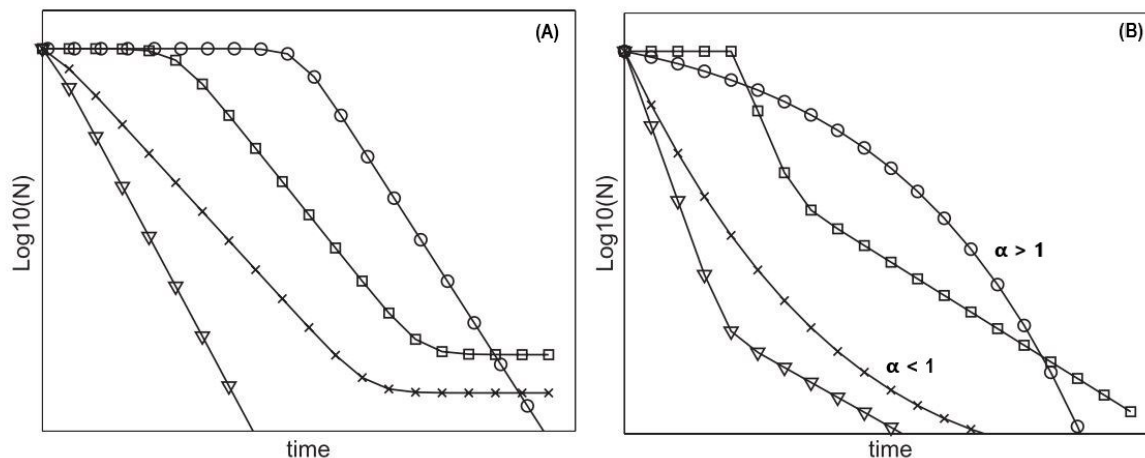
No qual, y é logaritmo natural da contagem bacteriana (UFC mL⁻¹) no instante t ; y_0 é o ln N (UFC mL⁻¹) da concentração inicial de células; y_{max} é o logaritmo natural da contagem máxima de bactérias alcançada em (UFC mL⁻¹). μ_{max} é a velocidade máxima específica de crescimento (h⁻¹), h_0 é o parâmetro resultante do produto de μ_{max} e a fase lag (λ) e $F(t)$ representa uma função de ajuste para o modelo.

2.10.2 Modelo primário de inativação

A inativação de células microbiana, devido às condições de um processamento de alimentos ou pela ação de antimicrobianos, pode exibir diferentes curvas de sobrevivência. Curvas log-linear, curvas que exibem ombro antes de uma redução log-linear ou cauda após uma redução log-linear, curva bifásica, côncava ou convexa. A Figura 2.7 apresenta tipos de curvas de inativação.

Figure 2.7 - Curvas comumente observadas nos processos de inativação microbiana. As curvas no gráfico (A) são: (Δ) log-linear; (\times) log-linear com cauda; (\square) sigmoidal; (\circ)

log-linear precedida de ombro. No gráfico (B): (Δ) bifásica; (\times) côncava; (\square) bifásica com ombro; (\circ) convexa.



Fonte: Extraído de Geeraerd; Valdramidis; Van Impe (2005).

2.10.2.1 Modelo de Inativação Weibull

Classicamente, a inativação microbiana é descrita como cinética de primeira ordem. Entretanto, a maioria dos experimentos de inativação não são bem ajustados a essa cinética. Em muitos casos, a curva de sobrevivência apresenta uma concavidade para baixo (presença de um ombro) ou concavidade para cima (presença de uma cauda). O modelo de Weibull tem sido usado com eficiência em estudos de inativação microbiana com comportamento não linear. Esse modelo assume que as células de uma população microbiana possuem diferentes resistências a um dado tratamento e a curva de sobreviventes é uma forma acumulativa do efeito letal do agente (VAN BOEKEL, 2002). Esse modelo apresenta a vantagem de ser simples e suficientemente robusto na descrição das curvas de sobrevivência (BUZRUL; ALPAS, 2004). O modelo de Weibull em sua forma logarítmica foi atualizado para o ajuste de curvas de sobrevivência conforme a Equação 2.5 proposta por Mafart *et al.* (2001).

$$\text{Log}_{10} N = \text{Log}_{10} N_0 - \left(\frac{t}{\beta}\right)^{\alpha} \quad (2.5)$$

No qual N_0 é a população microbiana inicial (UFC mL⁻¹), N é descrito como o número de microrganismos que sobreviveram após o tempo de tratamento (UFC mL⁻¹), α é o fator de forma (adimensional) e β é o fator de escala (h).

De acordo com Van Boekel (2002), a forma da curva de sobreviventes no modelo de Weibull é uma manifestação de vias diferentes de inativação. As curvas com concavidade voltada para baixo ($\alpha > 1$), indica que a população microbiana diminui progressivamente, que o tempo necessário para destruir a mesma fração de células diminui com o passar do tempo e que há dano cumulativo tornando cada vez mais difícil a sobrevivência. Nas curvas com concavidade voltada para cima ($\alpha < 1$), significa que a população contém membros que morrem, inicialmente, mais rápido e que as células restantes têm menor probabilidade de morrer, indicando que se adaptam ao estresse, levando um tempo maior de inativação (Figura 2.7).

2.10.3 Modelos secundários

Os modelos secundários descrevem a influência de fatores ambientais sobre as respostas dos parâmetros de modelos primários (HUANG; HWANG; PHILLIPS, 2011; ROSS; MCMEEKIN, 1994). Dentre os modelos secundários, os modelos da Raiz quadrada (Equação 2.6) e Tipo Arrhenius (Equação 2.7) são os mais utilizados para descrever a variação dos parâmetros dos modelos primários em relação ao fator ambiental observado. Entretanto, de acordo com Corradini e Peleg (2005), qualquer modelo empírico, que descreva o comportamento dos parâmetros dos modelos primários de forma satisfatória, pode ser classificado como modelo secundário. Alguns exemplos de modelos empíricos são; o modelo Linear (Equação 2.8) e exponencial (2.9).

$$\sqrt{y} = a(F - F_{min}) \quad (2.6)$$

$$\ln y = b \left(\frac{1}{F} \right) + c \quad (2.7)$$

$$y = dF + e \quad (2.8)$$

$$y = f \cdot \exp(gF) \quad (2.9)$$

Em que y é o parâmetro de interesse avaliado, geralmente relacionado com a velocidade de crescimento ou inativação (μ_{max} ou β), a, b, c, d, e, f, g são parâmetros calculados pelos modelos secundários e F é a variável ambiental analisada.

CAPÍTULO 3

3 MODELAGEM DA INFLUÊNCIA DA CONCENTRAÇÃO DE ÁCIDO PROPIÔNICO E PH NA CINÉTICA DE *SALMONELLA* TYPHIMURIUM

Neste capítulo, são discutidos os resultados do comportamento de *S. Typhimurium* em contato com o AP em meio BHI ajustado com HCl 1 M para os pH (4,5, 5,5 e 6,5). A menor concentração do agente que inibiu o crescimento da cepa após 48 h de contato foi determinada. Modelos matemáticos primários e secundários foram utilizados para estimar os parâmetros cinéticos de crescimento e inativação e para descrever a influência do AP sobre *S. Typhimurium*. O trabalho foi submetido para a revista *International Microbiology*, sob o título “*Modeling the influence of propionic acid concentration and pH on the kinetics of Salmonella Typhimurium*”, o qual encontra-se sob revisão.

ABSTRACT

Salmonella Typhimurium is a foodborne pathogen often found in the poultry production chain. Antibiotics have been used to reduce *S. Typhimurium* contamination in poultry aviaries and improve chicken growth. However, antibiotics were banned in several countries. Alternatively, organic acids, such as propionic acid (PA), can control pathogens. This study determined the PA minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC), minimum bactericidal concentration (MBC), and mathematically modeled *S. Typhimurium* growth/inactivation kinetics under the influence of PA at different pH values (4.5, 5.5, and 6.5) within the range of chickens' gastrointestinal tract. The PA MIC against *S. Typhimurium* was pH-dependent, resulting in 7, 15, and 100 mM at pH 4.5, 5.5, and 6.5, respectively. The Baranyi and Roberts, and Weibull models fit growth and inactivation data well, respectively. For example, the validated model predicted 3-log reduction of *S. Typhimurium* in 3 h at 94 mM of PA and pH 4.5. The models presented a good capacity to describe the kinetics of *S. Typhimurium* subjected to PA, representing a useful tool to predict PA antibacterial action depending on the pH.

Keywords: Antimicrobial; Food predictive modeling; Foodborne pathogen; Organic acid; Food safety.

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Salmonella is a foodborne pathogen associated with many products, often found in poultry meat and its derived products (MENGARDA BUOSI *et al.*, 2022). *Salmonella* can be present in fecal material in the poultry processing plant, contaminating carcasses during slaughter and subsequent steps (MANI-LÓPEZ; GARCÍA; LÓPEZ-MALO, 2012). Contaminated broiler carcasses can affect consumers, causing medical expenses for infected individuals and large economic losses to the poultry industry, such as product recalls and compensation, which can reach up to US\$11 billion per year (WERNICKI; NOWACZEK; URBAN-CHMIEL, 2017).

Salmonella Typhimurium is the strain that has received the most attention. It can handle different environmental factors, becoming a persistent serovar in the poultry environment (EL-AZIZ, 2013; RYCHLIK; BARROW, 2005; SPECTOR; KENYON, 2012) and one of the most reported foodborne pathogens in human infections (ABHISINGHA; DUMNIL; PITAKSUTHEEPONG, 2020; COBURN; GRASSL; FINLAY, 2007; MACIOROWSKI *et al.*, 2006; MEZAL; STEFANOVA; KHAN, 2013; RODPAI *et al.*, 2013).

Antibiotic Growth Promoters (AGP) were used to minimize contamination and improve broiler weight gain. However, the use of AGP has been suspended in several countries because antibiotic-resistant *Salmonella* can be transferred from the food chain to humans, consequently representing a public health problem (CASEWELL *et al.*, 2003; DITTOE; RICKE; KIESS, 2018). Some strategies have been suggested as an alternative to AGP to improve *Salmonella* control in the poultry production chain, such as the washing of broiler carcasses with antioxidant agents and the application of bacteriocins, essential oils, and organic acids in water or poultry feed (Dinçer and Baysal, 2004; Khan *et al.*, 2022; Mani-López *et al.*, 2012).

Organic Acids (OA) can be an alternative to AGP since it has antimicrobial activity and increases weight gain performance in broilers. The OA molecules intensify pancreatic secretions to promote enhanced proteolytic activity and improve nutrient digestibility in the animal's gastrointestinal tract (GIT) (DITTOE; RICKE; KIESS, 2018; NG *et al.*, 2015).

The antimicrobial action is attributed to the OA undissociated form. The dissociation of the acid depends on its pK_a , and the pH of the solution. When the medium has a pH value equal to its pK_a , 50% of the acid is undissociated in the solution (MANI-LÓPEZ; GARCÍA; LÓPEZ-MALO, 2012; SKŘIVANOVÁ *et al.*, 2011). The literature highlights the propionic acid (PA, $pK_a = 4.89$) as an antimicrobial component in blends with other acids and salts when added to poultry feed alternatively to AGP (ALSHAWABKEH; TABBAA, 2002; MOORE *et al.*, 2017; NAVA *et al.*, 2009; OLIVEIRA *et al.*, 2019; SENKOYLU *et al.*, 2007). However, there is little data on the effect of PA on *S. Typhimurium* as a function of the actual pH.

The predictive microbiology approach has been used as an effective tool to represent the behavior of microorganisms in response to different environmental conditions (PRADHAN *et al.*, 2012). Primary models describe the evolution of microorganisms as a function of time, subject to environmental factors such as temperature, pH, atmosphere composition, water activity, acids and salt concentration, among others (MEMBRÉ; LAMBERT, 2008). The Baranyi and Roberts (BAR) primary model is widely used to represent microbial growth, and most of the parameters of this model are biologically interpretable (BARANYI *et al.*, 1995; BARANYI; ROBERTS, 1994). Weibull is the primary model efficiently used in microbial inactivation studies with non-linear behavior (MAFART *et al.*, 2001). Secondary models evaluate the environmental variable's effect on the primary model's parameters (LONGHI *et al.*, 2017). The square root (RATKOWSKY *et al.*, 1982) and Arrhenius (TAOUKIS, 1999) type models are the most frequently used to determine the effect of temperature on the microbial growth rate, but they can be extended to other factors. Predictive modeling is recognized as an essential tool for assessing microbiological risks (TIRLONI *et al.*, 2021).

Therefore, this study evaluated the use of the propionic acid against *S. Typhimurium*, estimating the minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) and minimum bactericidal concentration (MBC) and measured the influence of the PA on *S. Typhimurium* cells depending on culture medium pH into the range of the broiler's gastrointestinal tract. Thus, predictive microbiology primary and secondary models were used to describe *S. Typhimurium* growth/inactivation kinetics depending on PA concentration and medium pH.

3.2 MATERIAL AND METHODS

3.2.1 Bacterial strain and inoculum

Salmonella enterica subsp. *enterica* serovar Typhimurium ATCC 14028 isolated from chicken viscera was used in this work. The strain was reactivated in Brain-heart infusion (BHI, Kasvi®, Brazil) broth and incubated at 37 °C for 18 h until a bacterial concentration of around 10^9 CFU mL⁻¹, according to previous studies (PAGANINI *et al.*, 2022). Then, the stock culture was prepared with 1.8 mL of cell suspension and 0.2 mL of glycerol 80% (v/v) to microtubes and stocked at - 24 °C until use.

The inoculum was prepared by transferring 100 µL of the stock culture to 10 mL of BHI medium (pH 7.4), which was incubated at 37 °C for 18 h. The suspension obtained was diluted until around 10^7 CFU mL⁻¹ for the studies of PA action against *S. Typhimurium*.

3.2.2 PA solutions

Propionic acid and sodium propionate were used to prepare buffered stock solutions. Three pH values (4.5, 5.5, and 6.5) were studied herein, based on the pH range of chickens' GIT (COX *et al.*, 1972; MABELEBELE *et al.*, 2013; RODRIGUES; CHOCT, 2018). PA and sodium propionate solutions (100 g L⁻¹) were mixed in proportions to reach the desired pH, measured in a pHmeter (Kasvi®, K39-2014B, Brazil). The buffer solutions at pH 4.5, 5.5, and 6.5 were sterilized with a 0.22 µm filter. The PA concentration (dissociated and undissociated forms) was measured in an HPLC (LC-20A Shimadzu) using the Aminex HPX-87H column (300 x 7.8 mm, Bio-Rad) and a refractive index detector, 5 mM H₂SO₄ eluent, flow rate of 0.6 mL min⁻¹, and temperature of 50 °C.

3.2.3 *S. Typhimurium* treatment with PA

The minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) and minimum bactericidal concentration (MBC) values of PA at pH 4.5, 5.5, and 6.5 against *S. Typhimurium* were

obtained by transferring different volumes of the buffered PA stock solutions to 250 mL Erlenmeyer flasks containing 100 mL of sterile BHI medium (sterilized at 121 °C for 20 min). Thus, the MIC value was assumed as the lowest PA concentration in which no growth was observed within 48 h, and the MBC value was the lowest PA concentration in which was observed at least a 3-log reduction in the bacterial count over time (SOUZA *et al.*, 2019).

The BHI was adjusted to each pH evaluated in this study. Then, PA concentrations of 2, 3, 5, 7, 10, 15, and 20 mM at pH 4.5; 5, 7, 10, 15, 30, 40, 50, 60, and 100 mM at pH 5.5; and 30, 100, 300, and 500 mM at pH 6.5 were established. Finally, the BHI was inoculated with 10 mL of the *S. Typhimurium* suspension (10^7 CFU mL⁻¹).

The undissociated PA concentration ($[HA]$) was estimated using Eq. 3.1 (WEMMENHOVE *et al.*, 2016).

$$[HA] = \frac{[PA]}{1+10^{pH-pKa}} \quad (3.1)$$

in which Ka is the dissociation constant of the PA, resulting in $pKa = -\log Ka = 4.89$, and $[PA]$ is the total PA concentration (sum of dissociated and undissociated PA concentration).

Also, control assays were performed in the BHI medium at pH = 4.5, 5.5, and 6.5 (adjusted using 1 M HCl) without adding PA. All experiments were performed in biological replicates, and the bacterial count was obtained after incubation at 37 °C without shaking over 48 h.

3.2.4 Microbial enumeration

An aliquot of 1 mL from each sample was collected at predefined intervals over 48 h of incubation and submitted to serial dilutions with sterile 0.1% (w/v) peptone water. Then, 1 mL from each dilution was transferred to Petri over BHI agar. The plates were incubated at 37 °C for 24 h. Enumeration of surviving *S. Typhimurium* cells was expressed as log CFU mL⁻¹ from plates with between 30 to 300 colonies.

3.2.5 Mathematical modeling

3.2.5.1 Primary models

The mathematical models used to describe microbial kinetics for growth and inactivation were the Baranyi and Roberts model (BAR) (BARANYI *et al.*, 1995; BARANYI; ROBERTS, 1994), Eqs. 3.2 and 3.3; and the Weibull model (Eq. 3.4) (RANJBARAN; CARCIOFI; DATTA, 2021).

$$\log y(t) = \log y_0 + \mu_{max} \frac{F(t)}{\ln(10)} - \frac{1}{m \ln(10)} \ln \left(1 + \frac{e^{m \mu_{max} F(t)} - 1}{10^{m(\log y_{max} - \log y_0)}} \right) \quad (3.2)$$

$$F(t) = t + \left(\frac{1}{\mu_{max}} \right) \ln \left(e^{(-\mu_{max} t)} + e^{(-h_0)} - e^{[(-\mu_{max} t) - h_0]} \right) \quad (3.3)$$

in which y is the logarithm of the bacterial concentration (CFU mL⁻¹) after the time interval t since growth has started; y_0 is the logarithm of the initial bacterial concentration (CFU mL⁻¹); y_{max} is the logarithm of the asymptotic bacterial concentration (CFU mL⁻¹) after growth (maximum concentration at stationary phase), μ_{max} is the maximum specific growth rate (h⁻¹), m is a curvature factor ($m = 1$), h_0 is the parameter resulting from the product of μ_{max} and the lag phase (λ), and $F(t)$ represents an adjustment function for the model.

$$\text{Log} \left(\frac{N}{N_0} \right) = - \left(\frac{t}{\beta} \right)^\alpha \quad (3.4)$$

in which N is the bacterial concentration (CFU mL⁻¹) after the time interval t since inactivation has started; N_0 is the initial bacterial concentration (CFU mL⁻¹) and α and β are fitting parameters form factor and scale factor, respectively.

The mathematical models were fit to describe the experimental data using Matlab R2016a (MathWorks®, Natick, EUA). Fit options (Minimizing the Square Root of the Mean Error (RMSE), trust region).

3.2.5.2 Secondary model

The secondary models used to describe the influence of PA concentration on the parameters of the primary model of inactivation were the exponential, Eq. 5, and squared root models (RATKOWSKY *et al.*, 1982), Eq. 6. The secondary model fitting procedures were performed in Microsoft Office Excel 2016 (Microsoft®, USA).

$$p = a \exp (b[PA]) \quad (5)$$

$$\sqrt{P} = c([PA] - [PA]_{lim}) \quad (6)$$

in which p is the parameter of interest evaluated (μ_{max} and β), $[PA]_{lim}$ is the fitting parameter indicating the theoretical limiting PA concentration for growth or inactivation, and a , b , and c are fitting parameters.

3.2.5.3 PA concentration for 3-log bacterial reduction in 3 h

Firstly, the Weibull model (Eq. 4) was used to predict the time to achieve 3 decimal reductions (t_{3DR}) of *S. Typhimurium* for each PA concentration evaluated, according to Eq. 3.7.

$$t_{3DR} = \beta(3)^{-a} \quad (3.7)$$

Then, the t_{3DR} values obtained were fitted by secondary models (Eqs. 5 and 6). Three hours interval was selected based on the average digestive transit time in the GIT of chickens (RODRIGUES; CHOCT, 2018). The predicted PA concentration to the 3-log reduction of *S. Typhimurium* was validated experimentally in essays following the same methodology previously presented.

3.2.6 Statistical analysis

All experimental data were obtained at least in duplicate. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to compare whether there is a significant difference between

the h_0 and α values of the BAR and Weibull models, respectively. The fit of the primary models to the experimental growth and inactivation data was evaluated using the statistical indices: Coefficient of Determination (R^2 , Eq. 3.8), Root Mean Squared Error ($RMSE$, Eq. 3.9), and Accuracy factor (A_f , Eq. 10) (LONGHI *et al.*, 2013).

$$R^2 = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (pred_i - obs_i)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (obs_i - average)^2} \quad (3.8)$$

$$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (pred_i - obs_i)^2}{n-x}} \quad (3.9)$$

$$A_f = 10^{\left(\frac{\sum \log(pred_i/obs_i)}{n}\right)} \quad (3.10)$$

in which $pred_i$ is each predicted value; obs_i is each corresponding experimental data for each $pred_i$; n is the amount of i observations; and x is the number of parameters in the model.

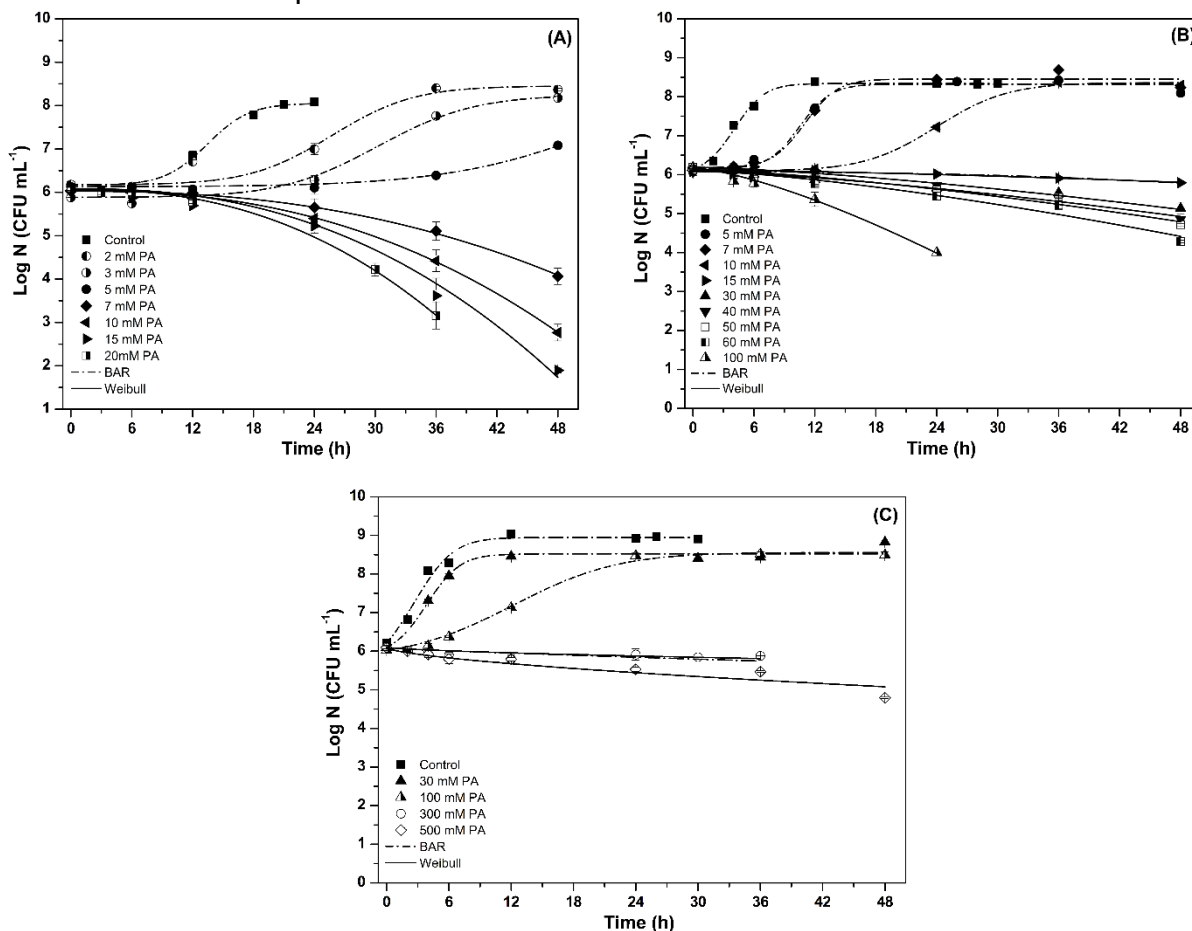
3.3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.3.1 Effect of PA and pH on *S. Typhimurium*

S. Typhimurium behavior after exposure to the different PA concentrations in BHI at pH 4.5, 5.5, and 6.5 over time is presented in Fig. 1. The bacteria within the medium without PA, independently of the pH, grew faster than any other sample at the same pH but exposed to the PA. It demonstrated that *S. Typhimurium* can grow in a stressful environment regarding the pH in the studied range, and the undissociated PA interferes with bacterial culture development.

The inactivation curves at pH 4.5 and 5.5 (Fig. 1A and 1B) indicate a concave shape with a shoulder ($\alpha > 1$), and, at pH 6.5, the curves showed $\alpha < 1$, a slightly upward concavity trend. In curves with $\alpha > 1$, the bacterial population progressively decreases, and the time required to inhibit the same cell fraction decreases; that is, the rate of destruction increases (MCKELLAR; LU, 2003). Inactivation curves with $\alpha < 1$ mean that the population contains members that initially die faster, and the surviving cells adapt to the stress (VAN BOEKEL, 2002).

Figure 3.1 - Growth and inactivation curves of *S. Typhimurium* incubated at 37 °C in BHI medium at pH 4.5 (A) with 2 mM (○), 3 mM (◐), 5 mM (●), 7 mM (◊), 10 mM (◄), 15 mM (◄), 20 mM PA (◼); in pH 5.5 (B) containing 5 mM (●), 7 mM (◊), 10 mM (◄), 15 mM (◄), 30 mM (▲), 40 mM (▼), 50 mM (◻), 60 mM (◼), 100 mM PA (△); and pH 6.5 (C) with 30 mM (▲), 100 mM (△), 300 mM (◻), 500 mM PA (◊). All Control assays are represented by the symbol (■). The dash-dot lines represent the BAR model fit, and the solid lines represent the fit of the Weibull model to the data for each condition.



The pH values in 48 h of kinetics and the concentration of undissociated PA are presented in Table 1. In the experiments initiated at pH 4.5, the final pH ranged from 4.2 to 4.5; for those initiating at pH 5.5, the final values varied from 4.5 to 5.5; and for initial pH 6.5, the final pH was between 5.5 and 5.8. In the experiments in which *S. Typhimurium* grew in contact with PA, the pH of the medium decreased since *Salmonella* produces hydrogen sulfide (H_2S) by degrading the sugars present in the medium (GAST; PORTER, 2020).

The lowest concentrations of PA which inhibited the growth of *S. Typhimurium* in BHI medium at pH 4.5 (Fig. 1A), pH 5.5 (Fig. 1B), and pH 6.5 (Fig. 1C) were 7 mM, 15 mM, and 300 mM, respectively. It was therefore assumed that these concentrations

represented the MIC of PA for the pathogen at each pH assessed. According to Eq. 1, the MIC of undissociated PA for *S. Typhimurium* at pH 4.5 was 4.97 mM (Table 1), representing 71.0% of PA in the protonated form. The MIC of undissociated PA at pH 5.5 was 3.54 mM (Table 1), 23.6% of the acid in the undissociated form. For pH 6.5, the MIC of the undissociated acid was 8.99 mM (Table 1), which is only 3% of the acid in the protonated form since, at pH 6.5, there are much more mols of propionate than mols of acid.

Table 3.1 - Final pH after 48 h of bacterial growth or inactivation and the final concentration of undissociated PA, $[HA]$.

pH 4.5			pH 5.5			pH 6.5		
$[PA]$ (mM)	Final pH	$[HA]$ (mM)	$[PA]$ (mM)	Final pH	$[HA]$ (mM)	$[PA]$ (mM)	Final pH	$[HA]$ (mM)
Control	4.20 ± 0.00		Control	4.50 ± 0.00		Control	5.75 ± 0.07	
2	4.50 ± 0.00	1.42	5	4.70 ± 0.00	3.03	30	5.85 ± 0.07	2.96
3	4.45 ± 0.07	2.06	7	4.80 ± 0.00	3.86	100	5.80 ± 0.00	10.95
5	4.55 ± 0.07	3.43	10	5.05 ± 0.07	4.09	300	6.40 ± 0.07	8.99
7	4.50 ± 0.00	4.97	15	5.40 ± 0.00	3.54	500	6.50 ± 0.00	11.97
10	4.50 ± 0.00	7.10	30	5.45 ± 0.07	6.47			
15	4.40 ± 0.10	11.33	40	5.45 ± 0.07	8.63			
20	4.45 ± 0.07	14.21	50	5.50 ± 0.00	9.85			
			60	5.45 ± 0.07	12.95			
			100	5.50 ± 0.00	19.71			

These results are consistent since the antimicrobial activity of PA is directly linked to pH and the dissociation constant of the acid ($pK_a = 4.89$). Indeed, as the pH decreases, the concentration of undissociated acid increases. This results in a decrease in the molecule polarity, and the diffusion of the acid increases through the lipid membrane of bacterial cells (Mani-López et al., 2012). The undissociated form of the acid in the more alkaline intracellular environment dissociates and releases H^+ , making the cytoplasmic environment more acidic. In this condition, a disturbance in the pH gradient of the cell occurs, bringing adverse consequences in nutrient transfer, inhibition of essential enzymes for cellular metabolisms, and damage to the DNA molecule with consequent growth inhibition (EŞ et al., 2017; HUYGHEBAERT; DUCATELLE; IMMERSEEL, 2011; LUNA-FLORES et al., 2017).

The lowest acid concentration promoting 3-log reduction in 48 h was determined as MBC. MBC was only observed for 10 mM PA at pH 4.5, corresponding to 7.10 mM in the undissociated form (Table 3.1), providing a 3.42 log reduction (Table

3.2). At pH 5.5, the maximum log reduction observed was 2.18 log (Table 3.2) at the concentration of 100 mM (19.71 mM in undissociated form, Table 3.1). For pH 6.5, only a 1 log reduction was observed when *S. Typhimurium* was exposed to 500 mM PA for 48h (Table 3.2), representing 11.97 mM (Table 3.1) of undissociated PA.

According to the literature, the highest recommended concentration of PA in poultry feed and water is around 135 mM and 54 mM, respectively (BORIES *et al.*, 2011). Higher levels can significantly reduce feed and reduce body weight gain in broiler chickens. In this sense, it is not recommended to apply very high concentrations of PA to achieve 3 decimal reductions of the pathogen in the condition of pH closer to neutrality (pH 6.5).

The antibacterial impact of the acid can be associated with its effective concentration in various digestive regions of the chicken, which includes the crop, proventriculus, gizzard, small intestine, cecum, and colon. The crop is an anterior chicken GTI region located just after the neck (SVIHUS, 2014). In this region, the feed is moistened and fermented, and the acid produced by the microbiota of the region keeps the pH low. Depending on the food, the pH can vary from 3.8 to 6.9, with an average pH of 4.5 (RODRIGUES; CHOCT, 2018). In the stomach (proventriculus and gizzard), the pH is between 2 and 5. On the other hand, the pH of the final region of the GTI, the small intestine and colon, is close to neutral (6.5 to 7.5); and in the ceca, the pH is around 5.7 (MENEZES-BLACKBURN; GABLER; GREINER, 2015; WALES; ALLEN; DAVIES, 2010). Therefore, analysis of PA activity on the pH of the intestinal environment is important to reduce *S. Typhimurium* contamination.

According to Thompson and Hinton (1997), the antibacterial effect is greatest in the crop region of broilers, where pathogenic bacteria need to overcome the acid barrier of this region to colonize the posterior GTI. In this sense, the continuous addition of PA to feed or water at the concentration that promotes the inactivation of *S. Typhimurium* and at the pH corresponding to the crop of the animal is necessary, which could reduce the colonization of the strain in the chicken intestines and provide better weight gain for the animals.

3.3.2 Modeling the effect of PA on *S. Typhimurium* behavior

3.3.2.1 Primary models

The fitting of the primary models BAR (Eqs. 3.2 and 3.3) and Weibull (Eq. 3.4) used the average initial concentration (close to 6 log (CFU mL⁻¹)) for the values of y_0 and N_0 respectively.

The parameter estimation was performed in two steps. Firstly, the parameters μ_{max} (h⁻¹), y_{max} , (CFU mL⁻¹) and h_0 for BAR and α and β (h) for the Weibull model were estimated by fitting the models to the experimental data. The h_0 values did not differ significantly ($p > 0.05$) among different PA concentrations at a given pH evaluated. The same was observed for α . Therefore, the h_0 average value (\pm standard deviation) of 5.94 (\pm 1.44), 6.37 (\pm 1.76), and 1.62 (\pm 0.82) for pH 4.5, 5.5, and 6.5, respectively; and the α average value (\pm standard deviation) of 2.39 (\pm 0.23), 1.40 (\pm 0.34), and 0.64 (\pm 0.17) for pH 4.5, 5.5 and 6.5, respectively, were fixed for a second fitting of the BAR and Weibull models to the experimental data. Thus, new estimated μ_{max} , y_{max} , and β values were obtained. The Control experiments at pH 5.5 and 6.5 resulted in h_0 values significantly different from values at the same pH when PA was added. Thus, the fitting was performed independently in only one step for control data.

According to the statistical indices presented in Table 2, the primary models fitted well the experimental data of growth and inactivation. A good performance of the models was demonstrated by *RMSE* values ranging from 0.047 to 0.247 log CFU mL⁻¹. These results show that the values predicted by the models are close to the observed values. The R^2 and A_f values were, in general, very close to 1.

The experimental data for bacterial kinetics with 15 mM/pH 5.5 and 300 mM/pH 6.5 presented an almost constant count over time, representing a region at the growth and non-growth boundary. Table 2 presents the result of fitting both BAR and Weibull models to these data at the boundary region.

According to the parameters data of the BAR model presented in Table 2, as the PA concentration increases, the μ_{max} values decrease. The β values estimated by the Weibull model decrease with increasing PA concentration, reaching even smaller values at pH 4.5. It demonstrates that both pH and acid concentration affect the kinetic

parameters of growth and inactivation since the concentration of the undissociated PA is influenced by the pH of the medium.

Table 3.2 - Parameters (\pm standard deviation) and statistical indices by fitting the BAR and Weibull models to the experimental data of the growth and inactivation curves of *S. Typhimurium* in BHI medium with buffered PA at pH 4.5, 5.5, and 6.5.
(to be continued)

pH 4.5									
PA (mM)	Experimental value	BAR Model parameters h_0 fixed* = 5.94		Weibull Model parameters α fixed = 2.39	Experimental value	Statistical indices		Log Reduction (48 h)	
	y_0 (Log CFU mL ⁻¹)	y_{max} (Log CFU mL ⁻¹)	μ_{max} (h ⁻¹)	β (h)	N_0 (Log CFU mL ⁻¹)	R^2	$RMSE$ (Log CFU mL ⁻¹)		A_f
Control	6.17 \pm 0.04	8.05 \pm 0.01	0.51 \pm 0.00			0.987	0.102	1.010	
2	6.18 \pm 0.02	8.45 \pm 0.06	0.28 \pm 0.01			0.940	0.247	1.019	
3	5.89 \pm 0.01	8.25 \pm 0.07	0.24 \pm 0.01			0.992	0.096	1.011	
5	6.13 \pm 0.02	7.56 \pm 0.05	0.13 \pm 0.00			0.961	0.076	1.006	
7				36.41 \pm 0.07	6.02 \pm 0.02	0.976	0.122	1.018	
10				29.27 \pm 0.99	6.04 \pm 0.00	0.998	0.062	1.011	
15				25.94 \pm 0.13	6.09 \pm 0.06	0.980	0.228	1.043	
20				23.04 \pm 0.25	6.07 \pm 0.06	0.990	0.121	1.020	
pH 5.5									
PA (mM)	Experimental value	Baranyi Model parameters h_0 fixed** = 6.37			Weibull Model parameters α fixed = 1.40	Experimental value	Statistical indices		Log Reduction (48 h)
	y_0 (Log CFU mL ⁻¹)	y_{max} (Log CFU mL ⁻¹)	μ_{max} (h ⁻¹)	h_0 Control	β (h)	N_0 (Log CFU mL ⁻¹)	R^2	$RMSE$ (Log CFU mL ⁻¹)	
Control	6.15 \pm 0.05	8.34 \pm 0.00	0.74 \pm 0.04	2.02 \pm 0.32			0.989	0.095	1.008
5	6.15 \pm 0.01	8.32 \pm 0.03	0.71 \pm 0.01				0.984	0.130	1.012
7	6.18 \pm 0.01	8.45 \pm 0.00	0.68 \pm 0.01				0.983	0.147	1.010
10	6.11 \pm 0.04	8.36 \pm 0.04	0.31 \pm 0.01				0.996	0.067	1.006
15	6.16 \pm 0.00	4.00 \pm 0.02	0.07 \pm 0.01				0.777	0.070	1.006
15					109.5 \pm 15.7	6.13 \pm 0.05	0.900	0.047	1.005
30					45.49 \pm 3.47	6.19 \pm 0.04	0.882	0.113	1.015
40					43.23 \pm 0.96	6.09 \pm 0.02	0.980	0.064	1.009
50					38.90 \pm 1.42	6.14 \pm 0.04	0.928	0.129	1.018
60					33.03 \pm 2.04	6.11 \pm 0.08	0.950	0.142	1.019
100					13.70 \pm 0.10	6.18 \pm 0.06	0.982	0.109	1.058

Table 3.2 Parameters (\pm standard deviation) and statistical indices by fitting the BAR and Weibull models to the experimental data of the growth and inactivation curves of *S. Typhimurium* in BHI medium with buffered PA at pH 4.5, 5.5, and 6.5.

(conclusion)

pH 6.5										
PA (mM)	Experimental value	Baranyi Model parameters fixed*** = 1.62			Weibull Model parameter fixed = 0.64	Experimental value	Statistical indices			Log Reduction (48 h)
	y_0 (Log CFU mL ⁻¹)	y_{max} (Log CFU mL ⁻¹)	μ_{max} (h ⁻¹)	h_0 Control	β (h)	N_0 (Log CFU mL ⁻¹)	R^2	RMSE (Log CFU mL ⁻¹)	A_f	
Control	6.21 \pm 0.00	8.94 \pm 0.02	0.64 \pm 0.84	0.67 \pm 0.20			0.977	0.166	1.012	
30	6.10 \pm 0.04	8.53 \pm 0.04	0.70 \pm 0.02				0.973	0.145	1.010	
100	6.02 \pm 0.01	8.56 \pm 0.08	0.23 \pm 0.00				0.991	0.108	1.008	
300	6.11 \pm 0.05	3.84E-13 \pm 0.0	1.00E-4 \pm 0.0				0.761	0.054	1.006	
300					242.0 \pm 17.5	6.11 \pm 0.05	0.603	0.067	1.009	0.20
500					46.92 \pm 2.43	6.12 \pm 0.04	0.868	0.151	1.020	1.31

y_0 is the initial cell concentration fixed in the model, y_{max} is the maximum cell growth, α is the mean of the shape factor estimated over the inactivation experiments, and β the scale factor, N_0 is the initial cell concentration fixed in the model.

* h_0 fixed is the arithmetic mean of the experiments from the Control (0 PA) to 5 mM PA

** h_0 fixed is the arithmetic mean of the experiments from 5 to 15 mM of PA

*** h_0 fixed is the arithmetic mean of the experiments from 30 to 300 mM of PA

3.3.2.2 Secondary models

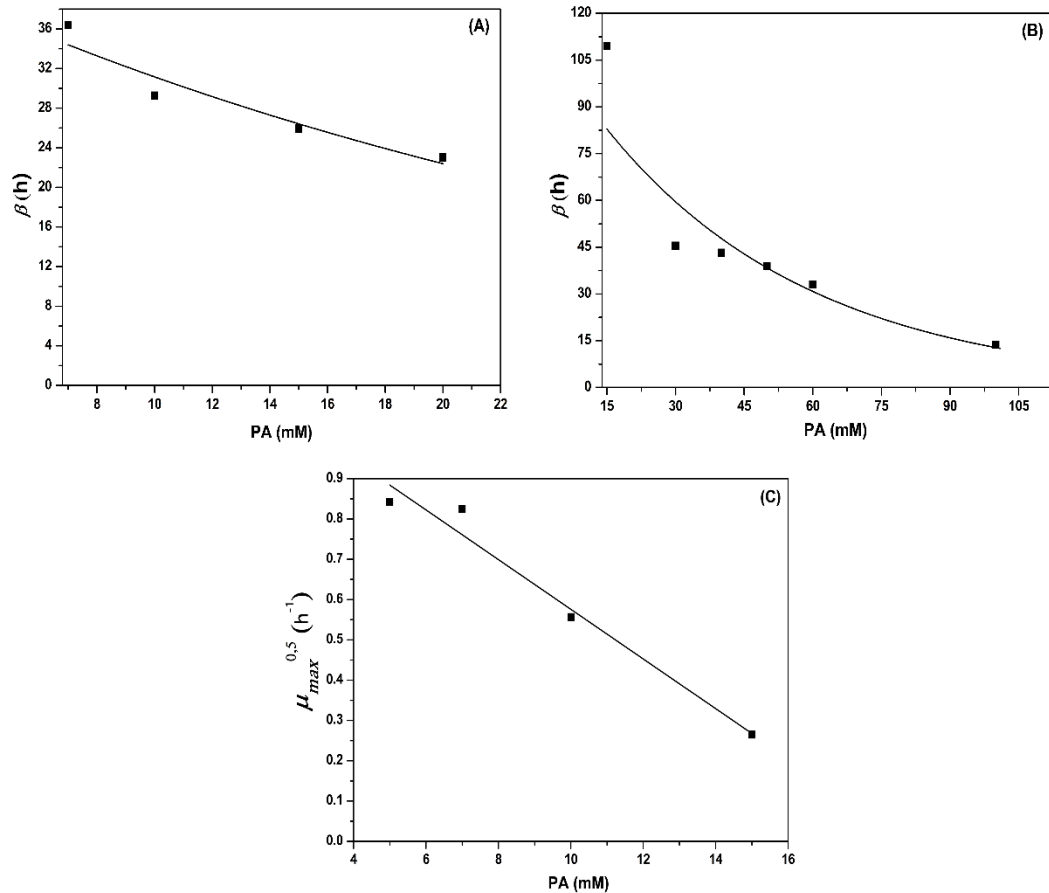
The parameters β (pH 4.5 and 5.5) and μ_{max} (pH 5.5) estimated from the primary Weibull and BAR models, respectively, were modeled as a function of PA concentration in the secondary square root (Eq. 3.5) and exponential secondary models (Eq. 3.6). The secondary models were selected according to the coefficient of determination (R^2). The empirical parameters of the secondary model are presented in Table 3.

Table 3.3 - Estimated values of the empirical parameters a and b by fitting the exponential secondary model to the β values, c and $[PA]_{lim}$ by fitting the square root model to the μ_{max} values and statistical indices of each model.

Exponential model			
	a (1/h)	b (1/mM)	R^2
β pH 4.5 (A)	43.347	-0.033	0.919
β pH 5.5 (B)	115.27	-0.022	0.860
Square root model			
	c (1/mM. \sqrt{h})	$[PA]_{lim}$ (mM)	R^2
$\sqrt{\mu_{max}}$ pH 5.5 (C)	-0.062	19.23	0.972

The exponential secondary model described well the influence of PA concentration on β parameters at pH 4.5 (Figure 3.2A) and β values at pH 5.5 (Figure 3.2B), and the square root model best represented the influence of PA concentration on μ_{max} (Figure 3.2C). Based on the value of R^2 , the secondary models exhibited a good ability to predict the inactivation of *S. Typhimurium* exposed to PA within the range of concentrations and pH evaluated.

Figure 3.2 - Exponential secondary models of β at pH 4.5 (A), β at pH 5.5 (B), and the square root secondary model of μ_{max} (C) at pH 5.5 as a function of PA concentration. The solid lines (—) represent the values predicted by the models.



At pH 6.5, it was impossible to have a secondary model because the concentrations required to inactivate the strain would be higher than the evaluated. As mentioned above, adding these concentrations in broiler feeds would not be viable.

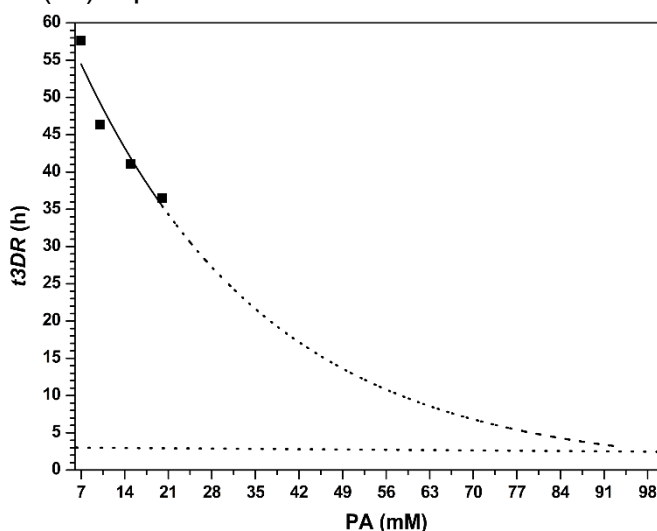
3.3.2.3 Prediction of PA concentration to promote 3-log reductions in 3 h

The time predicted to observe 3 decimal reductions (t_{3DR}) of *S. Typhimurium* exposed to each PA concentration evaluated was calculated by Eq. (3.7), considering ($\text{Log}(N/N_0) = 3$). The secondary exponential model showed a good fit to the t_{3DR} data as a function of PA concentration at pH 4.5 (Figure 3.3) confirmed by the coefficient of determination (R^2) of 0.919 and at pH 5.5 with $R^2 = 0.860$.

The fit of an exponential equation to experimental data of t_{3DR} vs. $[PA]$ at pH 4.5 resulted in Eq. 3.11. From this equation, it was possible to estimate by extrapolation of data, that 94 mM of PA at pH 4.5 has $t_{3DR} = 3$ h.

$$t_{3DR} = 68.64 e^{-0.033[PA]} \quad (3.11)$$

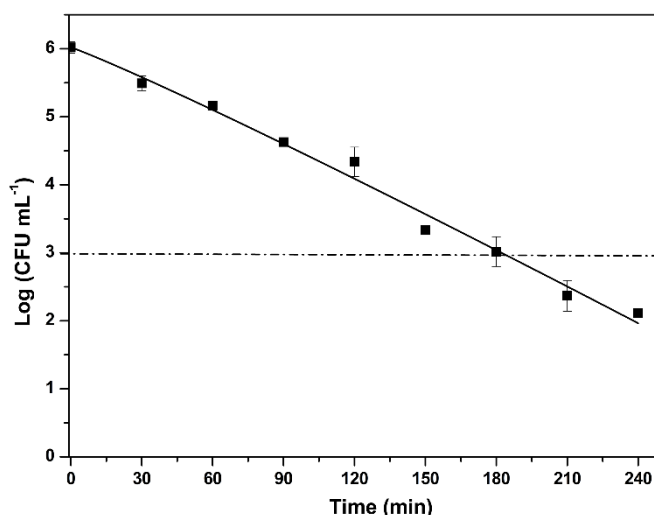
Figure 3.3 - Secondary Exponential model of t_{3DR} as a function of PA concentration for $t_{3DR} = 3$ h. Filled squares (■) represent the t_{3DR} values for each PA concentration evaluated at pH 4.5. The solid lines (—) represent the values predicted by the secondary model, the dotted lines (.....) represent the data extrapolation, and the dotted horizontal line (.....) represents $t_{3DR} = 3$ h.



3.3.2.4 Secondary model validation

Since the experimental data is a biological variable, reproducibility and reliability are critical issues in reducing the parameter errors in the primary model fit. A good performance in fitting the inactivation curves of the primary model is essential for secondary modeling and obtaining reliable predictions of the model (MARKS, 2008). In this study, the secondary model was validated based on the PA concentration, predicted by Eq. 3.11, to achieve 3-log reductions of *S. Typhimurium* in 3h at pH 4.5 (Figure 3.4).

Figure 3.4 - Inactivation curve of *S. Typhimurium* exposed to concentrations of 94 mM PA at pH 4.5. The filled squares (■) are the experimental data. The solid lines (—) represent the Weibull model fits, and the dashed lines (---) demonstrate the 3-log reduction in 3 h.



The results in Figure 3.4 show a 3-log reduction of *S. Typhimurium* in 3 h (180 min) of contact with a medium containing 94 mM of PA (73.36% undissociated PA) at pH 4.5 (Figure. 3.4). The fit of the Weibull model (Eq. 3.4) to the experimental data of *S. Typhimurium* in 94 mM PA were $\alpha = 1.07 \pm 0.02$ and $\beta = 64.96 \pm 1.72$ (min). The pathogen population exhibited a fast inactivation rate due to the high concentration of PA in the undissociated form permeating the cell.

The exponential secondary model accurately predicted the 3-log reduction of *S. Typhimurium* in 3 h of contact with PA at pH 4.5. These results suggest that a single dose of 94 mM of PA at pH 4.5 is favorable for preventing the growth of *S. Typhimurium* in the broiler crop. According to Guo et al. (2022), when the animal remains on a water diet before slaughter, the concentration of acids in the crop decreases due to the reduction of carbohydrates in this region, which may increase contamination by *Salmonella*. In addition, Bories et al. (2011), this concentration does not exceed the upper limit of 135 mM of PA for chicken feed. At another pH, such as 5.5 and 6.5, the concentration incorporated into the feed may be higher and can promote lower feed consumption by the broilers. It is necessary to evaluate *in vivo* the performance of the PA concentrations predicted in this study in the reduction of *S. Typhimurium* when incorporated into the feed and drinking water of the chickens.

3.4 CONCLUSION

The results presented in this study proved that the effectiveness of PA on *S. Typhimurium* is dependent on the pH. The most efficient inhibition results of *S. Typhimurium* in contact with PA were observed at pH 4.5 with an MIC of 7 mM and MBC of 10 mM. The secondary models described the influence of PA on the parameters of *S. Typhimurium* kinetics. The inactivation predictions proposed by the Exponential secondary model at pH 4.5 was validated. The model can predict the PA concentration to inactivate *S. Typhimurium* after a desired time, helping reduce the risk of contaminated broilers.

CAPÍTULO 4

4 EFEITO INIBITÓRIO DO ÁCIDO ACÉTICO EM DIFERENTES PH NO CONTROLE DE *SALMONELLA* TYPHIMURIUM EM CONDIÇÕES AERÓBICAS E COM LIMITAÇÃO DE OXIGÊNIO

O ácido acético (AA) é dos AO utilizados na ração de frangos para reduzir contaminação por *Salmonella* na indústria avícola (SALEEM *et al.*, 2016). Além disso, o AA pode ser utilizado como solução de lavagem para carcaças de frangos como uma prática de higienização em abatedouros e processadores de aves (MANI-LÓPEZ; GARCÍA; LÓPEZ-MALO, 2012). Como alguns produtos derivados de frangos são embalados a vácuo, limitando a disponibilidade de oxigênio, bem como o ambiente gastrointestinal de frangos possui baixa tensão de oxigênio e variação de pH, é bastante relevante avaliar o efeito do AA contra *Salmonella* nessas condições ambientais. Por isso, neste capítulo, a exposição de *S. Typhimurium* a diferentes condições de pH e oxigênio foi investigada. Foram determinadas as concentrações inibitórias mínimas (CIM) de ácido acético para *S. Typhimurium* em aerobiose e em limitação de oxigênio, utilizando meio BHI ajustado com HCl 1 M para os valores de pH 4,5, 5,5 e 6,5. Os experimentos foram conduzidos em microplacas de 96 poços e em tubos de ensaio de 16 mL contendo 6 mL de meio BHI.

As cinéticas de inativação dos sobreviventes de *S. Typhimurium* (UFC mL⁻¹) em aerobiose foram realizadas utilizando as quatro menores concentrações do ácido acético em cada pH, que não apresentaram crescimento nos tubos de 16 mL após 48 h. Esse procedimento foi realizado com o objetivo de determinar a CIM do ácido acético, utilizando a mesma metodologia usada para determinação a CIM do AP, a fim de obter resultados comparáveis.

ABSTRACT

Acetic acid (AA) is one of the organic acids used as an antimicrobial agent added to chicken feed to reduce *Salmonella* colonization. Once chicken has ingested the feed containing AA, the effect of the acid on the pathogen may vary due to differences in pH and oxygen limitation in the regions of the chicken's gastrointestinal tract. In this study, it was evaluated the inhibitory effect of different AA concentrations under different pH and oxygen conditions on *S. Typhimurium*. Oxygen-limited assays were carried out in sealed 96-well microplates, and aerobic assays were carried out in 16 mL tubes. Growth was monitored by spectrophotometry and was determined the minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) of AA by counting survivors after 48 hours. The behavior of *S. Typhimurium* as a function of AA concentration was evaluated using mathematical modeling only under aerobic conditions. In the control experiment, without AA, there was no growth of *S. Typhimurium* under limited oxygen conditions and pH 4.5, but at pH 5.5 and 6.5, the MIC was 3.44 mM (0.53 mM in the undissociated form) and 330 mM (5.9 mM in the undissociated form), respectively. In aerobiosis, the MIC of AA for *S. Typhimurium* was 4 mM, 10 mM, and 473 mM with 2.58 mM, 1.54 mM, and 8.45 mM in the undissociated form at pH 4.5, 5.5, and 6.5, respectively. The MIC of AA at pH 5.5 was almost three times lower under limited oxygen conditions than under aerobic conditions. The primary Weibull model showed a good fit to the experimental data and the secondary exponential and square root models showed a good fit to the β -parameter data of the primary model for pH 4.5 and 5.5, respectively. These models can predict AA concentrations for inhibiting *S. Typhimurium* in BHI within the AA range evaluated. The results suggest that under oxygen-limited conditions, AA is more efficient against *S. Typhimurium* than under aerobic conditions.

Keywords: Food-borne pathogen; mathematical modeling; minimal inhibitory concentration.

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The most common reservoir of *Salmonella* is the host's gastrointestinal tract (GIT) (ÁLVAREZ-ORDÓÑEZ *et al.*, 2012), where the pathogen can survive various environmental conditions such as acid presence, high osmolarity, bile salts, and low oxygen tension (DE SALES *et al.*, 2018). Surviving these harmful conditions of the GTI, *Salmonella* can colonize the animal and infect humans by consuming contaminated food. This poses a significant public safety problem (MELO *et al.*, 2017), in which *Salmonella* Typhimurium, Gram-negative, facultative anaerobic, resistant to adverse pH, temperature, and oxygen conditions, is one of the most prevalent serovars in the epidemiologic chain involving poultry products (BETERAMS *et al.*, 2023; NIKHIL *et al.*, 2022).

In view of the restricted use of antibiotics growth promoting (BIALKOWSKI *et al.*, 2023), several additives (organic acids, essential oils, minerals, plant metabolites, amino acids, herbs, oligosaccharides) are used in chicken feed to reduce or eliminate *Salmonella* contamination in the poultry industry (SWAGGERTY *et al.*, 2020). Among the alternatives, organic acids (OA) have provided animal health benefits due to reduce broiler gut pathogens and increase nutrient digestibility (DITTOE; RICKE; KIESS, 2018).

Most studies have focused on evaluating the application of OA on animal health and growth performance due to increased nutrient digestibility and improved feed conversion (ADIL *et al.*, 2010; ALJUMAAH *et al.*, 2020; ARISTIMUNHA *et al.*, 2016; BAGAL *et al.*, 2016; BIALKOWSKI *et al.*, 2023; GIANNENAS *et al.*, 2014; NOURMOHAMMADI *et al.*, 2012; PANDA *et al.*, 2009; SENKOYLU *et al.*, 2007). This leaves a gap in scientific knowledge regarding the minimum concentration of OA for pathogenic suppression in a pH-varying and oxygen-limited environment, such as chicken GIT.

Broilers consume large amounts of feed that are digested in the GIT regions, which include the crop, proventriculus, gizzard, small intestine, and cecum (SVIHUS, 2014), which have a different pH and a low oxygen tension (ÁLVAREZ-ORDÓÑEZ *et al.*, 2012). Considering that the antimicrobial efficacy of OA is directly related to the ambient pH (MANI-LÓPEZ; GARCÍA; LÓPEZ-MALO, 2012), the effect leading to

pathogen inhibition under different pH and oxygen conditions may be a favorable approach to *Salmonella* growth inhibition.

The most commonly used OAs in animal feed are formic, acetic, propionic, butyric, lactic, fumaric, and citric acids (DIBNER; BUTTIN, 2002). Based on the effects of the individual acids, they can be divided into two groups: the first group (e.g. lactic, fumaric, citric acids) are able to reduce pathogenic bacteria indirectly by acidification in the host stomach, and the acids of the second group (e.g. acetic, propionic, formic acid), have an action characterized by a direct effect on the ambient pH and are dependent on a medium with low pH to permeate the cell wall of Gram-negative bacteria and reach the membrane and specific functions of cell metabolism (DITTOE; RICKE; KIESS, 2018; PAPATSIROS *et al.*, 2013).

In the literature, it has been reported that acetic acid (AA) is one of the OAs added to chicken feed to reduce *Salmonella* in the poultry industry (Saleem *et al.* 2016). It is also one of the most accepted acids for decontamination in poultry processing (DINÇER; BAYSAL, 2004), due to its economic availability, ease of use, and efficiency without posing problems to consumer health (MANI-LÓPEZ; GARCÍA; LÓPEZ-MALO, 2012; SOHAIB *et al.*, 2016). However, the efficiency of AA depends on the ambient pH, and it is known that there are no studies that have determined the total and undissociated minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) of AA against *S. Typhimurium* under different conditions of pH and oxygen. Therefore, the aim of this study was to determine the MIC of AA at different pH (4.5, 5.5 and 6.5), which represent an average pH of the chicken GTI regions, crop, cecum and intestine, respectively (GIANNENAS *et al.*, 2014; MABELEBELE *et al.*, 2013; RODRIGUES; CHOCT, 2018) for *S. Typhimurium* in a BHI medium, under aerobic and oxygen-limited conditions. In addition, mathematical modeling was used as a valuable and efficient tool (TARLAK; OZDEMIR; MELIKOGLU, 2018) to evaluate the growth and inactivation of *S. Typhimurium* under aerobic conditions.

4.2 MATERIAL AND METHODS

4.2.1 Strains, stock preparation, and Inoculum

Salmonella enterica subsp. *enterica* serovar Typhimurium ATCC 14028 was used in this work. The strain was grown in 10 mL of sterile BHI medium (BHI, Kasvi®, Brazil) (pH 7.4) at 37 °C for 18 h without shaking (PAGANINI *et al.*, 2022). Then, a suspension was transferred to microtubes with glycerol (20%) and stored at - 24 °C for further use.

The inoculum was prepared with 100 µL suspension of the stored *S. Typhimurium* culture by reactivation in 10 mL of BHI broth and incubated at 37 °C for 18 h. Afterward, 1 mL of the inoculum was diluted in 10 mL BHI medium to attain 10^7 CFU mL⁻¹ for further use in the experiments.

4.2.2 Buffered Acetic Acid Solutions

Three pH values (4.5, 5.5, and 6.5) were evaluated in this study, based on an average of the pH present in the chickens gastrointestinal tract (GIT) (COX *et al.*, 1972; MABELEBELE *et al.*, 2013; RODRIGUES; CHOCT, 2018). AA and sodium acetate (100 g L⁻¹) were mixed to obtain the buffer solutions at the pH levels evaluated, using a pH meter (Kasvi®, K39-2014B, Brazil). Then, the AA buffer solutions were sterilized by vacuum filtration using 0.22 µm membranes and stored at -24 °C.

4.2.3 Determination of the minimal inhibitory concentration (MIC) of AA in limited oxygen conditions for *S. Typhimurium*

To evaluate the MIC in limited oxygen condition, each AA concentration at pH 4.5 (0.9, 1.8, 3.5, 7.1, 14.2, 28.4, 56.8, 113.5, 227 mM), pH 5.5 (0.9, 1.7, 3.4, 6.9, 13.8, 27.5, 55 mM), and pH 6.5 (80, 130, 180, 230, 330, 380, 390, 400, 410, 420, 430 mM) was initially prepared in 10 mL tubes with a final volume of 6 mL.

The composition of each concentration was prepared by adding buffered AA, *S. Typhimurium* inoculum, sterile BHI medium adjusted to pH (4.5, 5.5, and 6.5) with

1 M HCl, and 0.025% sterile resazurin as an indicator of the oxygen condition in the medium.

Then, 200 μ L of each AA concentration was transferred to the 96-well microplates. Every column in the microplate represented a specific AA concentration, resulting in 8 replicates. The positive controls were transferred to the first column and negative controls have been included in the last column as proof that there has been no contamination. One microplate was used for each pH, then sealed (Platemax Axygen) and incubated at 37 °C for 48 h without shaking.

Growth was monitored at predetermined times by optical density (OD 630 nm) in a microplate reader (Thermo plate TP-Reader) programmed to shake 15 s before reading. The data were represented graphically as $\ln OD/OD_0$, in which DO is the optical density measured at each time (t) and DO_0 is the initial optical density. At the end of 48 h, based on the results obtained, some concentrations were selected to perform microbial count of the surviving cells and determine the MIC of AA for *S. Typhimurium* at each pH. MIC was determined as the lowest concentration of AA for which no growth was observed within 48 h. It is important emphasize that only the final sample of the runs in microplates (at 48 h of experiment) was harvest for microbial count.

4.2.4 Determination of the minimal inhibitory concentration (MIC) of AA in aerobic conditions for *S. Typhimurium*

In aerobiosis, the procedure was performed in 16 mL tubes, containing a final volume of 6 mL and resulting in 8 repetitions. Positive controls were conducted without the presence of AA in the medium. The buffered AA concentrations at pH 4.5 (2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16, 18, 20, 22 mM), pH 5.5 (2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16 mM), and pH 6.5 (101, 234, 250, 267, 284, 318, 334, 423, 473, 523, 573 mM) were prepared using the same method as described in the previously. Then, tubes were then incubated at 37 °C for 48 h without shaking, and 120 μ L aliquots were transferred to microplates at predetermined times for optical density reading (Thermo plate TP-Reader OD 630 nm) programmed to shake for 15 s before reading. The data was graphically displayed with the same specification mentioned above. To determine the MIC of AA for *S.*

Typhimurium, the surviving cells of the four lower concentrations of AA buffered where no growth occurred were selected for enumeration by the standard plate counting procedure. MIC was determined as the lowest concentration of AA in aerobic conditions for which no growth was observed within 48 h. Different from the limited-oxygen condition, and based on the growth profile results obtained, the kinetics of these selected concentrations of AA were performed in log CFU mL⁻¹ for 48 h for *S. Typhimurium* inactivation, with the aim to apply mathematical models (primary and secondary models) in these data.

4.2.5 Undissociated AA concentration

The undissociated AA concentrations ($[HA]$) corresponding to the MIC for each pH evaluated were calculated according to Eq. 4.1 (WEMMENHOVE *et al.*, 2016).

$$[HA] = \frac{[AA]}{1 + 10^{pH - pKa}} \quad (4.1)$$

in which $[AA]$ is the total AA concentration (sum of dissociated and undissociated AA concentration), and Ka is the dissociation constant of AA, ($pKa = -\log Ka = 4.76$).

4.2.6 Microbial count

Aliquots of 150 μ L were collected for serial dilution with sterile 0.1% peptone water in sterile 2 mL microtubes. Then, 1 mL of the appropriate dilution for counting was transferred to Petri plates and the pour plating method was performed on BHI Agar. The plates were incubated at 37 °C for 24 h and just those plates with 30 to 300 colonies were counted. The enumeration was expressed in log CFU mL⁻¹.

4.2.7 Primary and secondary mathematical models

The primary models used in this study to evaluate the behavior of *S. Typhimurium* when exposed to AA were the Baranyi and Roberts (BAR) (BARANYI *et al.*, 1995; BARANYI; ROBERTS, 1994) Eq. 4.2 and 4.3, and Weibull (Eq. 4.4)

(MAFART *et al.*, 2001). The primary model fits were performed using Matlab R2016a software (MathWorks®, Natick, EUA).

$$\log y(t) = \log y_0 + \mu_{max} \frac{F(t)}{\ln(10)} - \frac{1}{m \ln(10)} \ln \left(1 + \frac{e^{m \mu_{max} F(t)} - 1}{10^{m(\log y_{max} - \log y_0)}} \right) \quad (4.2)$$

$$F(t) = t + \left(\frac{1}{\mu_{max}} \right) \ln \left(e^{(-\mu_{max} t)} + e^{(-h_0)} - e^{[(-\mu_{max} t) - h_0]} \right) \quad (4.3)$$

in which, y is the logarithm cell concentration (CFU mL⁻¹) at time t , y_0 is the logarithm of the initial cell concentration (CFU mL⁻¹), y_{max} is the logarithm of the maximum cell concentration (CFU mL⁻¹) at stationary phase, μ_{max} is the maximum specific growth rate (h⁻¹), h_0 represents the physiological state of the cell calculated by the product of μ_{max} and the lag phase (λ) (h). $F(t)$ represents an adjustment function for the model.

$$\text{Log} \left(\frac{N}{N_0} \right) = - \left(\frac{t}{\beta} \right)^\alpha \quad (4.4)$$

in which, N is the cell concentration (CFU mL⁻¹) at time t , N_0 is the initial cell concentration (CFU mL⁻¹), α represents the curve shape factor and β (h) is the scale factor.

To describe the dependence of the β parameter of the primary Weibull model on AA concentrations at each pH evaluated, the exponential (Eq. 4.5) (RATKOWSKY *et al.*, 1982) and square root (Eq. 4.6) secondary models were compared. The fits of the secondary models were performed using Office Excel 2016 (Microsoft®, USA).

$$p = a \cdot \exp(b[AA]) \quad (4.5)$$

$$\sqrt{p} = c([AA] - [AA]_{lim}) \quad (4.6)$$

in which, p represents the parameter of the primary model evaluated (β), a , b , and c are fitting parameters, $[AA]_{lim}$ is the fitting parameter indicating the theoretical limiting AA concentration for growth or inactivation.

4.2.8 Statistical analysis

The experimental data were presented as the mean \pm the standard deviation, performed at least in duplicate. To evaluate the efficiency of the primary models, the following statistical indexes were adopted: Coefficient of determination (R^2 , Eq. 4.7), Root Mean Squared Error ($RMSE$, Eq. 4.8), and Accuracy factor (A_f , Eq. 4.9) (LONGHI *et al.*, 2013). The secondary models were evaluated according to the R^2 . The adjusted R^2 values obtained from the models and A_f values close to 1 represent a good fit. The lower the $RMSE$ values, the closer the predicted values are to those observed and the more adequacy the model.

$$R^2 = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (pred_i - obs_i)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (obs_i - average)^2} \quad (4.7)$$

$$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (pred_i - obs_i)^2}{n-x}} \quad (4.8)$$

$$A_f = 10^{\left(\frac{\sum \log(pred_i/obs_i)}{n}\right)} \quad (4.9)$$

in which $pred_i$ is each predicted value; obs_i is each corresponding experimental data for each $pred_i$, n is the number of experimental data, x is the number of parameters in the model.

4.3 RESULTS

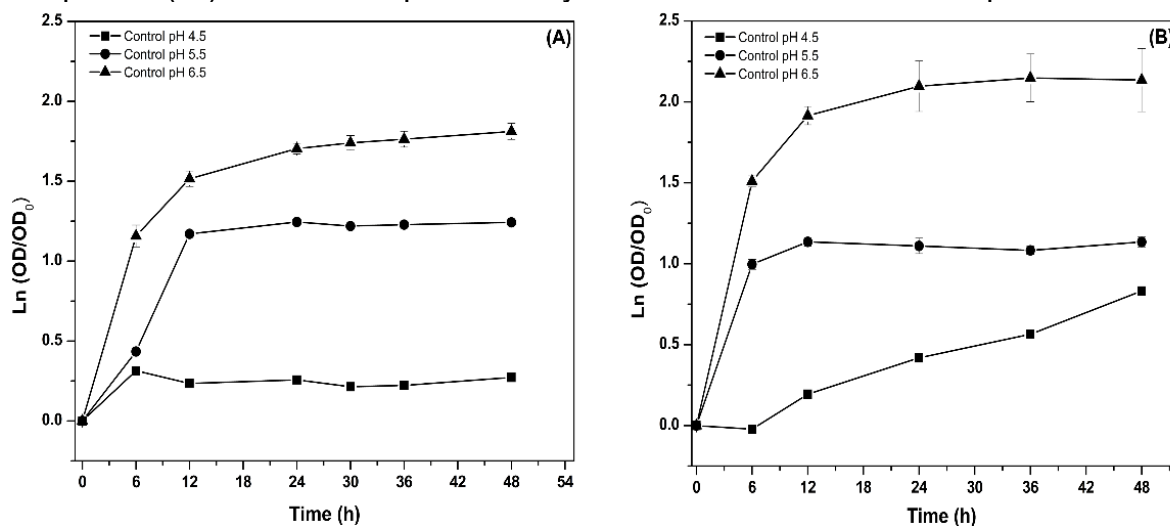
4.3.1 Growth of *S. Typhimurium* in the BHI medium at pH (4.5, 5.5, and 6.5) without AA

The pH values were measured after 48 h (data not shown) in all assays performed to calculate the MIC of AA in the undissociated form, using Eq. 4.1.

The oxygen-limited condition was observed by the change in the color of the medium due to indicator used (after 6 h of incubation, the medium changed from pink to translucent, indicating that oxygen was consumed).

The Figure 4.1 presents the growth of *S. Typhimurium* under oxygen-limited (A) and aerobic (B) conditions for the positive Control experiment, absent of AA in BHI medium adjusted to the desired pH. It can be seen in this figure that *S. Typhimurium* grows aerobically (Figure 4.1B and Table 4.1) under all the pH conditions evaluated but is inhibited at pH 4.5 after the microplate environment is oxygen-limited (Figure 4.1A). These results corroborates with that presented by Graziani et al., (2017), since *S. Typhimurium* could growth in pH different of its optimal range (from 6.5 to 7.5), supporting stress environment.

Figure 4.1 - Growth of *S. Typhimurium* ($\ln OD/OD_0$ 630 nm) under oxygen-limited (A) and aerobic (B) conditions for the Control experiments at pH 4.5 (■), pH 5.5 (●), and pH 6.5 (▲). The lines represent only the connection between the points.

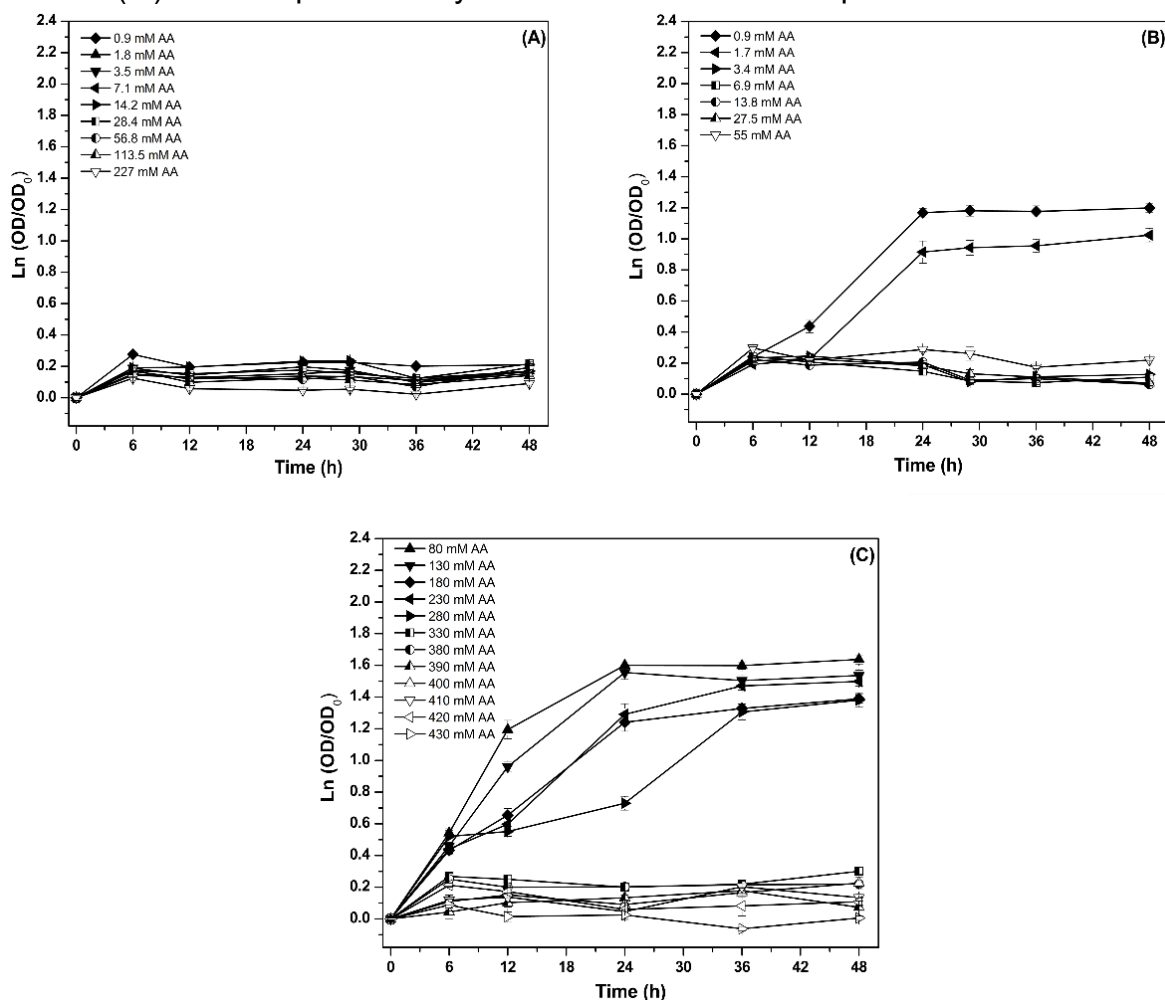


4.3.2 Treatment of *S. Typhimurium* with AA under oxygen-limited and aerobic conditions

Spectrophotometric monitoring of *S. Typhimurium* exposed to buffered AA concentrations at the pH evaluated, under oxygen-limited conditions, is presented in Figure 4.2.

In pH 4.5, even with 2-log strain reduction at the 0.9 mM concentration (Table 4.1), it is impossible to establish the MIC of AA, because strain inhibition occurred at all concentrations evaluated (Figure 4.2A), including the Control, which can grow under aerobic conditions and at this pH, as shown in Figure 4.1 and Table 4.1.

Figure 4.2 - Growth of *S. Typhimurium* ($\ln OD/OD_0$ 630 nm) exposed to different concentrations of AA in limited-oxygen conditions at pH 4.5 (A) with 0.9 mM (◆), 1.8 mM (▲), 3.5 mM (▼), 7.1 mM (◄), 14.2 mM (►), 28.4 mM (■), 56.8 mM (●), 113.5 mM PA (△), 227 mM PA (▽); at pH 5.5 (B) with 0.9 mM (◆), 1.7 mM (◄), 3.4 mM (►), 6.9 mM (■), 13.8 mM (●), 27.5 mM PA (△), 55 mM PA (▽), and at pH 6.5 (C) with 80 mM (▲), 130 mM (▼), 180 mM (◆), 230 mM (◄), 280 mM (►), 330 mM (■), 380 mM (●), 390 mM PA (△), 400 mM PA (▽), 410 mM PA (◄), 420 mM PA (►), 430 mM PA (▷). Lines represent only connections between the points.



Analyzing Figure 4.2B and Table 4.1, it's possible to determine the MIC of AA at pH 5.5 for the pathogen in oxygen-limited condition of 3.44 mM, with only 0.53 mM in the undissociated form, as calculated from Eq. 4.1. For pH 6.5 (Figure 4.2C), the established MIC of AA for *S. Typhimurium* was 330 mM (Table 4.1) or 5.9 mM of AA in the undissociated form (Eq. 4.1).

Table 4.1 - *S. Typhimurium* cell concentration after 48 h of contact with different AA concentrations at pH (4.5, 5.5, and 6.5) under limited oxygen and aerobic conditions.

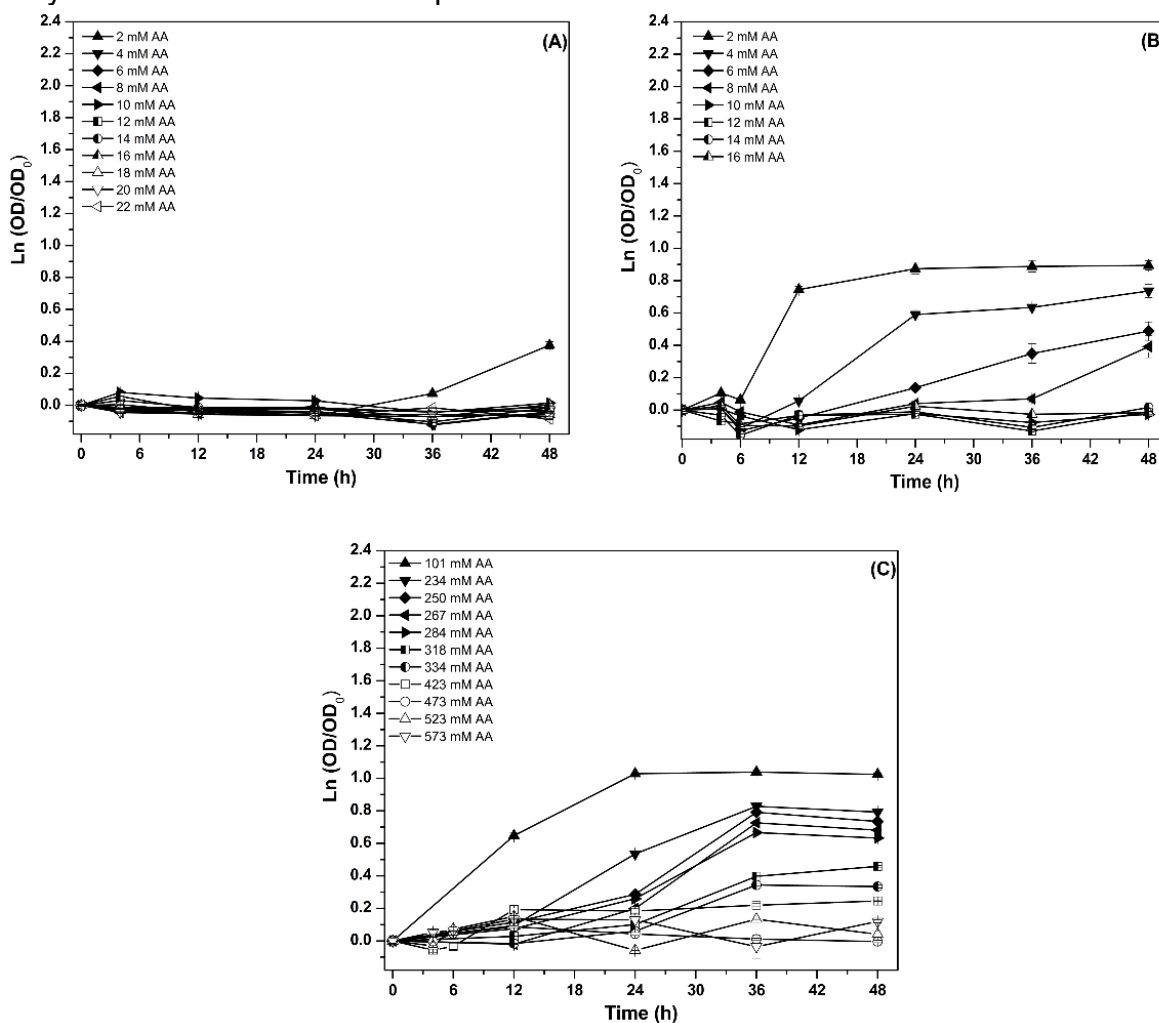
OXYGEN-LIMITED CONDITION					
pH 4.5		pH 5.5		pH 6.5	
Initial concentration 6.24 log (CFU mL ⁻¹)		Initial concentration 6.19 log (CFU mL ⁻¹)		Initial concentration 6.06 log (CFU mL ⁻¹)	
AA (mM)	Log (CFU mL ⁻¹)	AA (mM)	Log (CFU mL ⁻¹)	AA (mM)	Log (CFU mL ⁻¹)
C (+)	4.01 ± 0.02	C (+)	7.54 ± 0.03	C (+)	8.06 ± 0.05
0.9	4.17 ± 0.01	0.21	7.49 ± 0.06	280	6.85 ± 0.04
1.8	NS	0.43	7.56 ± 0.04	330	5.60 ± 0.00
3.5	NS	0.90	7.67 ± 0.12	380	4.83 ± 0.01
7.4	NS	1.72	7.29 ± 0.05	390	4.43 ± 0.03
14.2	NS	3.44	4.45 ± 0.02	400	4.82 ± 0.08
28.4	NS	6.9	4.48 ± 0.07	410	NS
56.8	NS	13.8	NS	420	NS
113.5	NS	27.5	NS	430	NS
		55	NS		
AEROBIC CONDITION					
pH 4.5		pH 5.5		pH 6.5	
Initial concentration 5.96 log (CFU mL ⁻¹)		Initial concentration 5.96 log (CFU mL ⁻¹)		Initial concentration 6.21 log (CFU mL ⁻¹)	
AA (mM)	Log (CFU mL ⁻¹)	AA (mM)	Log (CFU mL ⁻¹)	AA (mM)	Log (CFU mL ⁻¹)
C (+)	7.58 ± 0.05	C (+)	7.83 ± 0.04	C (+)	9.10 ± 0.05
2	7.65 ± 0.06	10	5.85 ± 0.04	423	6.05 ± 0.08
4	5.81 ± 0.10	12	5.91 ± 0.07	473	5.88 ± 0.00
6	5.08 ± 0.04	14	5.66 ± 0.02	523	5.63 ± 0.02
8	3.30 ± 0.02	16	5.72 ± 0.08	573	5.56 ± 0.03
10	NS				

NS: No survivors

C (+): Positive controls

Figure 4.3 shows the growth and inhibition data of the strain under aerobic conditions at different AA concentrations and pH levels. MIC of AA for *S. Typhimurium* analyzed in aerobiosis at pH 4.5, 5.5, and 6.5 were 4 mM, 10 mM, and 423 mM, respectively based on the survival count data after 48 h of incubation (Table 4.1). The MIC values of AA in the undissociated form were 2.58 mM, 1.54 mM, and 7.56 mM for pH 4.5, 5.5, and 6.5, respectively.

Figure 4.3 - Growth of *S. Typhimurium* ($\ln OD/OD_0$ 630 nm) exposed to different concentrations of AA in aerobic conditions at pH 4.5 (A) with 2 mM (\blacktriangle), 4 mM (\blacktriangledown), 6 mM (\blacklozenge), 8 mM (\blacktriangleleft), 10 mM (\blacktriangleright), 12 mM (\blacksquare), 14 mM (\bullet), 16 mM PA (\blacktriangle), 18 mM PA (\triangle), 20 mM (∇), 22 mM PA (\triangleleft) at pH 5.5 (B) with 2 mM (\blacktriangle), 4 mM (\blacktriangledown), 6 mM (\blacklozenge), 8 mM (\blacktriangleleft), 10 mM (\blacktriangleright), 12 mM (\blacksquare), 14 mM (\bullet), 16 mM PA (\blacktriangle), and at pH 6.5 (C) 101 mM (\blacktriangle), 234 mM (\blacktriangledown), 250 mM (\blacklozenge), 267 mM (\blacktriangleleft), 284 mM (\blacktriangleright), 318 mM (\blacksquare), 334 mM (\bullet), 423 mM PA (\square), 473 mM (\circ), 523 mM PA (\triangle); 573 mM PA (∇). Lines represent only connections between the points.

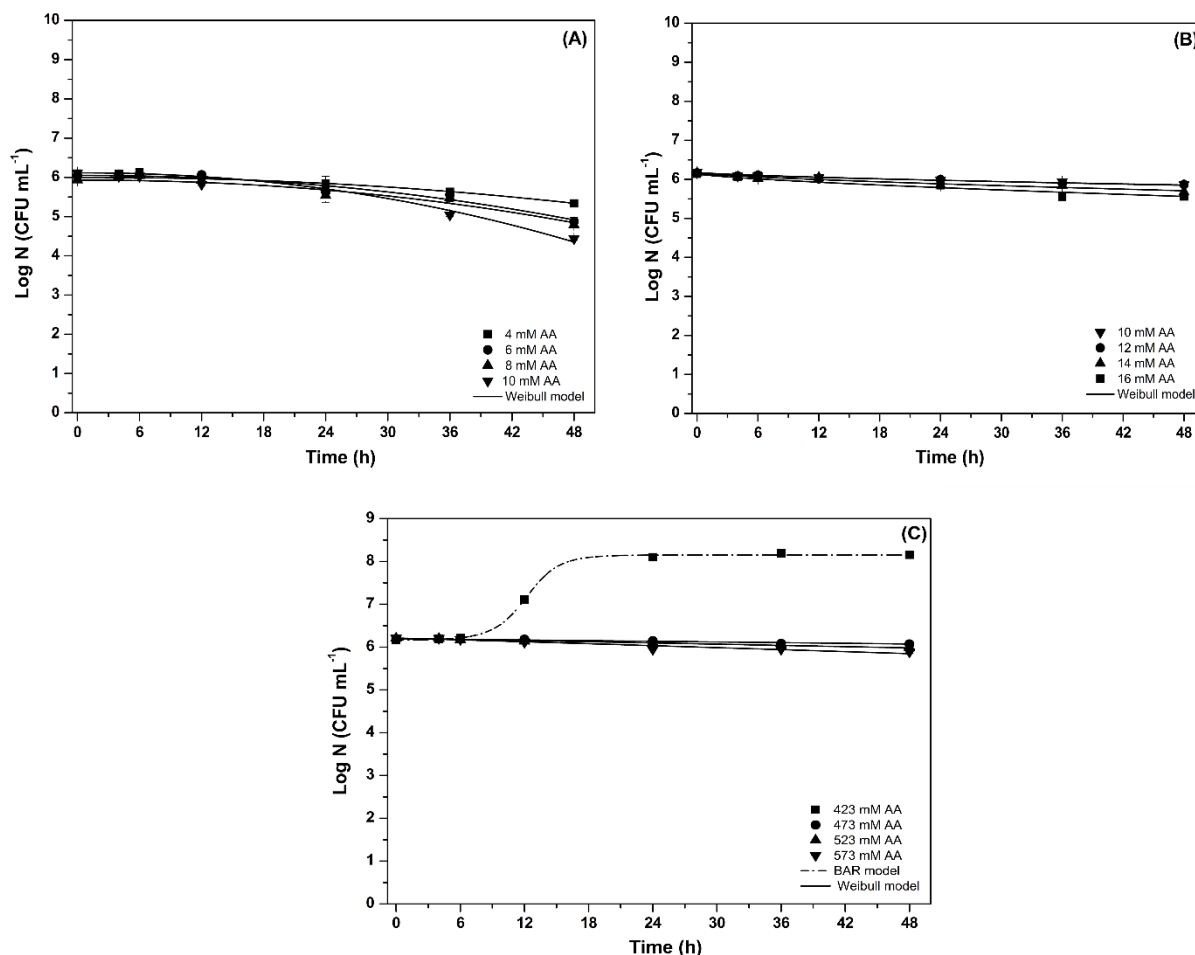


The MIC values at pH 4.5, 5.5, and 6.5 in oxygen-limited conditions were lower than that determined in aerobic conditions, confirming that the limited oxygen condition is an important additional barrier to inhibition of *S. Typhimurium*.

To confirm MIC values determined by turbidimetric methods, 48 h inactivation kinetics were carried out for the four lowest AA concentrations that showed no visible growth. Experimental data were presented as log N (CFU mL⁻¹) against time (Figure 4.4).

Spectrophotometry monitoring data on the behavior of *S. Typhimurium* exposed to 423 mM AA at pH 6.5 under aerobic conditions (Figure 4.3C), demonstrated inhibition of the strain. However, when performing the kinetics in log N (CFU mL⁻¹), it was observed that the bacteria developed growth up to the maximum concentration of 8.15 ± 0.04 (CFU mL⁻¹) (Table 4.2). In this way, the MIC value of AA for *S. Typhimurium* at pH 6.5 in aerobiosis was fixed as 473 mM (Figure 4.4 and Table 4.2).

Figure 4.4 - Behavior of *S. Typhimurium* incubated at 37 °C in BHI medium at pH 4.5 (A) with 4 mM (■), 6 mM (●), 8 mM (▲), 10 mM (▼), in pH 5.5 (B) containing 10 mM (▼), 12 mM (●), 14 mM (▲), 16 mM (■); and pH 6.5 (C) with 423 mM (■), 473 mM (●), 523 mM (▲), 573 mM PA (▼), in aerobiosis. The dash-dot lines represent the BAR model fit, and the solid lines represent the fit of the Weibull model to the data for each condition.



Based on the behavior of *S. Typhimurium* exposed to AA in aerobiosis (Figure 4.4), the MIC of AA can be confirmed as 4 mM, 10 mM, and 473 mM for pH 4.5, 5.5, and 6.5, respectively.

4.3.3 Mathematical modeling of AA effect on *S. Typhimurium*

Mathematical modeling was carried out using the BAR (Eqs. 4.2 and 4.3) model to describe growth, and the Weibull model to describe strain inactivation behavior (Eq. 4.4).

Weibull model was fitted to the experimental data of strain inactivation in BHI medium adjusted for the three pH levels evaluated, in two steps. In the first stage of modeling, the Weibull parameters (α, β) were estimated. Then, the mean value (\pm standard deviation) for the shape parameter (α) was calculated, resulting in α equal to 2.11 ± 0.39 , 0.71 ± 0.22 , and 1.04 ± 0.24 , respectively for pH 4.5, 5.5, and 6.5 (Table 4.2). In the second step, α was fixed to mean value and β was recalculate to each pH (Table 4.2).

As verified in Figure 4.4 and Table 4.2, AA concentrations at pH 4.5 (4, 6, 8, and 10 mM) (Figure 4.4A) present inactivation downward concavity curves ($\alpha > 1$). The inhibition curves of AA concentrations against *S. Typhimurium* for pH 5.5 (10, 12, 14, and 16 mM) (Figure 4.4B) demonstrated $\alpha < 1$, and pH 6.5 (473, 523, and 573 mM) (Figure 4.4C), the inactivation curves will present α approximately equal to 1, indicating a linearity for inactivation in 48 h of experiment.

In inactivation curves with $\alpha > 1$, there is a time delay for the decimal reduction. Initially, cells die slower, forming a shoulder, e.g. the time to reduce a cell variation is longer. Then, it is observed that the time to reduce the same cellular fraction decreases, increasing the rate of destruction, and making it increasingly difficult for the cells to survive (VAN BOEKEL, 2002). When $\alpha < 1$, it means that the remaining cells are less probable to die, there is an indication that the cells are more resistant to the treatment or have adapted to the stress (MCKELLAR; LU, 2003). If $\alpha = 1$, the probability of death is independent of time, i.e. each cell is equally susceptible regardless of the duration of the treatment. Thus, no biological variation is implicitly assumed (VAN BOEKEL, 2002).

The BAR model was fitted to the experimental growth data of the strain at 423 mM AA concentration at pH 6.5 setting the initial concentration (y_0) in the model to estimate the parameters (y_{max}, μ_{max}) (Table 4.2).

According to the statistical indices presented in Tables 4.2, the Weibull and BAR models present a good fit to the experimental data of inactivation and growth of *S. Typhimurium* exposed to different concentrations of AA at the pH evaluated in this study. The adequacy of the model can be confirmed by the *RMSE* values that ranged from 0.086 to 0.120 (CFU mL⁻¹) at pH 4.5, 0.024 to 0.079 (CFU mL⁻¹) at pH 5.5, and 0.017 to 0.043 (CFU mL⁻¹) at pH 6.5. These *RMSE* values close to zero mean that the

data predicted by the model are close to the experimentally observed data, indicating good model performance in describing observed data at the pH conditions evaluated.

Table 4.2 - Parameters (\pm standard deviation) and statistical indices by fitting the Weibull and BAR model to the experimental data of inactivation or growth curves of *S. Typhimurium* in BHI medium with buffered AA at pH 4.5, 5.5 and 6.5 under aerobic conditions.

pH 4.5										
AA (mM)	Weibull		Experimental value			Statistical indices			Log Reduction (48 h)	
	Parameters α fixed = 2.11		N_0			R^2	RMSE (Log CFU mL ⁻¹)	A_f		
	β (h)		(Log CFU mL ⁻¹)							
4	58.38 \pm 0.59		6.00 \pm 0.06			0.912	0.086	1.011	0.66	
6	45.21 \pm 0.17		6.05 \pm 0.01			0.946	0.105	1.012	1.16	
8	45.25 \pm 2.43		5.93 \pm 0.07			0.917	0.118	1.017	1.15	
10	36.72 \pm 0.87		6.12 \pm 0.08			0.960	0.120	1.018	1.68	
pH 5.5										
AA (mM)	Weibull		Experimental value			Statistical indices			Log Reduction (48 h)	
	Parameters α fixed = 0.71		N_0			R^2	RMSE (Log CFU mL ⁻¹)	A_f		
	β (h)		(Log CFU mL ⁻¹)							
10	236.9 \pm 6.4		6.18 \pm 0.03			0.917	0.032	1.004	0.31	
12	250.01 \pm 7.9		6.16 \pm 0.02			0.951	0.024	1.003	0.30	
14	144.9 \pm 2.15		6.16 \pm 0.02			0.926	0.045	1.006	0.49	
16	102.8 \pm 7.06		6.15 \pm 0.01			0.911	0.074	1.010	0.58	
pH 6.5										
AA (mM)	Weibull		BAR			Statistical indices			Log Reduction (48 h)	
	Parameters α fixed = 1.04	Exp. value	Model parameters			Experimental value	R^2	RMSE (Log CFU mL ⁻¹)		A_f
	β (h)	N_0 (Log CFU mL ⁻¹)	y_{max} (Log CFU mL ⁻¹)	μ_{max} (h ⁻¹)	h_0	y_0 (Log CFU mL ⁻¹)				
423			8.15 \pm 0.04	0.71 \pm 0.26	6.11 \pm 1.2	6.17 \pm 0.05	0.999	0.033	1.003	0.12
473	361.4 \pm 9.10	6.20 \pm 0.01					0.926	0.014	1.002	
523	204.8 \pm 26.7	6.21 \pm 0.01					0.960	0.017	1.002	
573	127.8 \pm 14.2	6.21 \pm 0.01					0.908	0.043	1.005	

β is the scale factor, N_0 is the initial cell concentration fixed in the model, α is the mean of the shape factor estimated over the inactivation experiments, y_{max} is the maximum cell growth, μ_{max} is the maximum specific growth rate, h_0 represents the physiological state of the cell, and y_0 is the initial cell concentration fixed in the model, y_{max} is the maximum cell growth experiments.

The influence of AA concentration at pH 4.5 and 5.5 on the parameter β was established by secondary models in aerobic conditions. The values of parameters a, b, c e $[AA]_{lim}$ estimated by fitting the exponential (Eq. 4.5) and square root (Eq. 4.6) secondary models and the R^2 are presented in Table 4.3. The Figure 4.5 shows the fit of the exponential (A) and square root (B) secondary models to the experimental β data at pH 4.5 and 5.5, respectively.

In both models, it is observed that with increasing AA concentration, the scaling factor decreases, that is, the time to reach the first decimal reduction, as expected. The exponential and square root secondary models presented adjusted R^2 of 0.891 and 0.857 (Table 4.3) to the β data at pH 4.5 and 5.5, respectively.

Figure 4.5 - Fitting of the exponential β at pH 4.5 (A), and square root β at pH 5.5 (B) secondary models as a function of AA concentration. The solid lines represent the fit of the models.

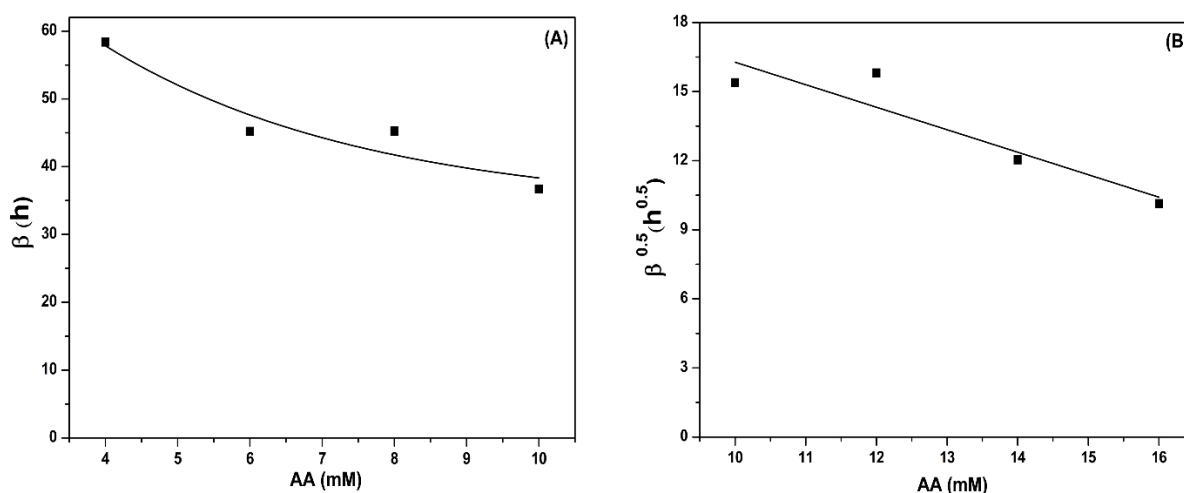


Table 4.3 - Estimated values of the empirical parameters (a, b, c), $[AA]_{lim}$ by fitting the exponential and square root secondary models to the β values, and the coefficient of determination (R^2).

Exponential model			
	a (1/h)	b (1/mM)	R^2
β pH 4.5 (A)	74.4	-0.07	0.894
Square root model			
	c (1/mM. \sqrt{h})	$[AA]_{lim}$ (mM)	R^2
$\sqrt{\beta}$ pH 5.5 (B)	-0.978	26.05	0.857

4.4 DISCUSSION

Salmonella genus is a member of the Enterobacteriaceae family highly adaptable that can survive in a range of environments, including pH and oxygen conditions. This adaptability makes it a particularly dangerous pathogen that can cause illness in humans and animals (ANTUNES *et al.*, 2016). The results of growth of *S. Typhimurium* at pH 4.5, 5.5, and 6.5 under aerobic and oxygen-limited conditions (Figure 4.1) are consistent as the pathogen could grow in a pH range between 3.8 and 9.5, enduring the stressful environment (GRAZIANI *et al.*, 2017; SPECTOR; KENYON, 2012).

Semenov *et al.* (2011) evaluated *S. Typhimurium* behavior under aerobic and anaerobic conditions and reported no significant differences in strain behavior, proving *S. Typhimurium* has the ability to grow in oxygen-limited environments. In the present study, bacterial inactivation occurred at pH 4.5. In the present study, bacterial inhibition occurred in all AA experiments at pH 4.5 under oxygen-limited conditions (Figure 4.2A). Although the low pH and proximity to the $pK_a = 4.76$ of AA are favorable for pathogen inactivation, because most acids having antimicrobial activity have a pK_a value between 3 and 5 (KHAN *et al.*, 2022), in this case, the inactivation was probably due to both stressful conditions of both pH and oxygen limitation in the 96-well plates. These pH and oxygen conditions can be considered for the application of AA in chicken feed, since the intestinal environment of the chicken has pH variation and low oxygen tension (DE SALES *et al.*, 2018).

The pH of the medium is an important factor in inhibiting pathogen growth. At low pH, AA is most available in the undissociated form. This undissociated form of OA is lipophilic and can easily permeate the cell membrane of bacteria by diffusion. The intracellular environment, which has a more alkaline pH, allows AA to dissociate. With the release of H^+ , the intracellular environment becomes more acidic disturbing enzymatic reactions. In addition, the influx of H^+ results in an attempt to maintain pH homeostasis by using energy to eject protons, which hinders bacterial cell proliferation and growth (KHAN *et al.*, 2022).

Evaluating the lowest concentration of the agent to inhibit or reduce the pathogen is a study of great relevance to the consumer market. In the present study,

low concentrations of AA were observed to inactivate *S. Typhimurium* at the three-pH studied, with the addition being more effective in the oxygen-limited condition.

Under aerobic conditions, AA MIC at pH 4.5 and 5.5 (4 mM, 10 mM) can be used to inactivate *S. Typhimurium* present directly in the feed, preventing possible contamination of the animal from contaminated feed.

Olaimat et al. (2018) evaluated the effect of AA against $6 \log \text{CFU mL}^{-1}$ of *S. Typhimurium* suspension inoculated into Mueller-Hinton broth and incubated at 25°C for 24 h. The authors observed a MIC of 0.6 mg mL^{-1} , which corresponds to 10 mM AA, but the pH of the medium was not informed. The same authors evaluated the antimicrobial activity of an AA solution containing 5 mg mL^{-1} (83.3 mM) against a cocktail of *Salmonella* ($5.5 \log \text{CFU mL}^{-1}$) in chicken breasts stored at 4°C , which resulted in a 2.4-log reduction after 10 days of storage. In the authors' evaluation, the pH of the chicken breast dropped from 6.2 to 5.2 at the end of 10 days. Therefore, as observed in the present study, in which the MIC of AA at pH 5.5 (10 mM) resulted in the inhibition of *S. Typhimurium* for 48 h (Figure 4.3 and Table 4.2), and 10 mM of AA at pH 4.5 reduced 1.68 log of the pathogen (Table 4.2) in the same time interval and under aerobic conditions, they can be considered as options to inhibit contamination by the pathogen in poultry products, for example.

Under oxygen-limited conditions, the MIC of AA at pH 5.5 to inhibit *S. Typhimurium* (3.44 mM) was almost 3 times lower than the MIC in aerobic conditions. In this case, the bacteria's cellular respiration is reduced, which could make it difficult to cope with the presence of acid. This AA concentration (3.44 mM) can be perfectly applied in chicken feeds in order to reduce the load of *S. Typhimurium* in the animal's GTI. However, once the animal has ingested the feed containing AA, the dissolution of the acid in the GTI must be taken into consideration. This is a study that should be evaluated *in vivo* in the future. It is noteworthy that similar studies of inhibition of *S. Typhimurium* to the conditions presented in this study were not found in the literature.

The accuracy of secondary models normally depends on several factors, such as the quality and quantity of the data used to develop the model. The ability of a model to predict the response of microorganisms under specific stresses is assessed by the coefficient of determination (R^2) among other statistical indices (BERMUDEZ-AGUIRRE; NIEMIRA, 2023). In this study, the fit of the secondary model to the β data did not show an R^2 close to 1, probably a larger number of data could improve the fit

of the secondary model. However, the observed secondary models can be used to predict AA concentrations for *S. Typhimurium* inactivation in the concentration range analyzed. It's important to note that the model's predictions should be validated experimentally to ensure their accuracy and reliability.

4.5 CONCLUSION

The best condition for *S. Typhimurium* inhibition was at pH 5.5 and oxygen-limited conditions with a MIC of 3.44 mM and only 0.53 mM in the undissociated form. The combination of low oxygen levels and acidic pH represents a direct and effective approach to inhibit *S. Typhimurium* growth in the presence of AA. These results contribute to the precise determination of the minimum concentrations of AA required to inactivate *S. Typhimurium*. Further studies are needed to assess the feasibility of applying these AA concentrations under real conditions of pH and oxygen in the GI tract of chickens. Furthermore, mathematical models can be used to predict adequate concentrations of AA to inactivate *S. Typhimurium* under specific pH conditions, aiding in the development of intervention strategies to ensure microbiological safety.

Capítulo 5

5 MODELAGEM MATEMÁTICA DO EFEITO DO CALDO DE FERMENTAÇÃO PROPIÔNICA PARA O CONTROLE DE *SALMONELLA* TYPHIMURIUM EM DIFERENTES PH

Neste capítulo foi avaliado o efeito do caldo da fermentação propiônica (PFB) para o controle de *S. Typhimurium*. Os experimentos foram realizados em tubos de 16 mL com um volume de 10 mL de meio BHI ajustado para os pH (4,5, 5,5 e 6,5), suspensão de *S. Typhimurium* e diferentes concentrações de PFB, as quais foram calculadas com base na concentração de AP do caldo.

ABSTRACT

Despite the development of various strategies for microbiological control, the poultry industry still faces challenges with *Salmonella* Typhimurium, a pathogen commonly found in chicken carcasses for human consumption. The poultry industry uses petrochemical-based organic acids (OA) to promote animal health and enhance their development. However, most of the production of OA involves the use of petroleum-derived raw materials, making it unsustainable due to its dependence on finite sources. Additionally, it can be polluting by generating toxic waste that negatively impacts the environment. Therefore, producing OA by microbial means is a more sustainable alternative, as it uses renewable raw materials, in addition to being a process with low environmental impact. In this way, it is necessary to evaluate the minimum concentration of new natural compounds to prevent pathogen contamination in an environmentally friendly way. This study aimed to produce OA by *Propionibacterium freudenreichii*, evaluate the interaction between the combination of acids in the propionic fermentation broth (PFB) at pH (4.5, 5.5 e 6.5), compare it with a mixture of synthetic OA, and model the behavior of *S. Typhimurium* exposed to PFB. The results showed a minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) of 3.5 mM PFB to *S. Typhimurium* at pH 4.5. A synergistic interaction between acids of PFB was observed only at pH 4.5. The PFB concentration of 46.4 mM at pH 4.5 was estimated by extrapolating the exponential secondary model to reduce 3 logs of *S. Typhimurium* at 3 h of contact. PBF at pH 4.5 and 5.5 was as effective as synthetic organic acid mixtures. The best results were observed at pH 4.5, suggesting the efficient application of natural OA products at this pH, showing to be a promising strategy to prevent contamination by *S. Typhimurium*. It is important to emphasize that any microbiological control method must undergo rigorous testing and validation before being implemented.

Keywords: Natural organic acids; minimum inhibitory concentration; Food-borne pathogen; mathematical modeling.

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Salmonella Typhimurium is a pathogen commonly found in chicken carcasses intended for human consumption. This species is resistant to environmental stressors and can persist throughout the entire poultry production chain (MILILLO; RICKE, 2010; QIAN *et al.*, 2020). Pathogen contamination in poultry products can result in significant economic losses to the poultry industry (WANG *et al.*, 2011; WERNICKI; NOWACZEK; URBAN-CHMIEL, 2017).

During the feed manufacturing process, the ingredients used can potentially become a source of *S. Typhimurium* contamination. Chickens can carry these pathogens in their intestines, and at slaughter their carcasses can be surface contaminated with *S. Typhimurium* (FERNÁNDEZ *et al.*, 2021).

Organic acids (OA) have long been used in feed or water for broiler production to increase productivity, improve the gut microbiota of poultry by reducing pathogenic microbiota (SCICUTELLA *et al.*, 2021). They are antimicrobials, usually synthetic, approved by the Food and Drug Administration (FDA), safe for use in animals, and with no daily consumption limit for humans (ADHIKARI *et al.*, 2020; ZHU *et al.*, 2016). The most commonly used in poultry farming are lactic acid (LA), propionic acid (PA), acetic acid (AA), butyric acid (BA), formic acid (FA), and citric acid (DIBNER; BUTTIN, 2002).

Numerous studies analyzed the effect of commercial OA mixtures added to feed to reduce *Salmonella* populations in poultry, for washing poultry carcasses, or in culture medium (ADHIKARI *et al.*, 2020; FERNÁNDEZ *et al.*, 2021; GALLI *et al.*, 2021; MENCONI *et al.*, 2013; RAMIREZ-HERNANDEZ; BRASHEARS; SANCHEZ-PLATA, 2018; ZHAO; ZHAO; DOYLE, 2009; ZHU *et al.*, 2016). Compared to the control groups, the total viable counts of the groups treated with OA were significantly reduced in all outcomes presented in these studies.

However, the use of petrochemical OA raises concerns in terms of long-term sustainability because production is dependent on a finite source (AMMAR *et al.*, 2020). PA production, for example, is predominantly carried out by the Reppe process, which converts ethylene, carbon monoxide, and steam to propionate, and the Larson process, which converts ethanol and carbon monoxide to propionate in the presence of boron trifluoride (GONZALEZ-GARCIA *et al.*, 2017). Microbial OA production from

renewable carbon sources is a promising approach to replacing conventional chemicals (YADAV *et al.*, 2022).

Propionibacterium freudenreichii is one of the strains capable of producing PA using various carbon sources (glucose, sucrose, xylose, etc.) (PIWOWAREK *et al.*, 2019). In addition to PA production, there is also co-production of acetic acid (AA) and succinic acid (SA) as by-products, reducing the pH of the medium (WANG; JIAO; LIU, 2014). Usually, around 10 g L⁻¹ of yeast extract is added to the medium, and the amino acids in the nitrogen source act as a buffer system in the medium, improving the fermentation kinetics (DISHISHA *et al.*, 2015). The utilization of organic acids obtained from fermentation and incorporated into chicken feed can prove as an effective measure for controlling *S. Typhimurium*.

Predictive models are useful tools for estimating the behavior of microorganisms and evaluating the microbiological safety of foods under specific conditions (PARK *et al.*, 2020). Mathematical models are classified into three categories known as primary, secondary and tertiary models. The primary model is used to predict the microorganism data as a function of time under a constant environmental condition. The secondary model is used to describe the effects of specific environmental condition on the parameters obtained from the primary model, and the tertiary model is a product of the integration of primary and secondary models that combine to generate systems capable of making predictions for changing environmental conditions. These systems are made available to the user through software with a user-friendly interface (WHITING; BUCHANAN, 1993). Mathematical models can be employed to describe the effects of OA present in the propionic fermentation broth (PFB) on *S. Typhimurium* and can bring an important information about agent for controlling the strain.

Although OA are widely studied for *S. Typhimurium* inactivation, there is a lack of literature investigating the inactivation of this microorganism by PFB. Therefore, this study aimed to produce natural OA by *Propionibacterium freudenreichii* and to determine the minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) and minimum bactericidal concentration (MBC) of the PFB on *S. Typhimurium*. To evaluate the interaction between the acids present in PFB, the fractional inhibition concentration index (FIC_{index}) was applied and the behavior of *S. Typhimurium* exposed to PFB at different pH was modeled.

5.2 MATERIAL AND METHODS

5.2.1 Propionic acid production

5.2.1.1 Strain

Propionibacterium freudenreichii subsp. shermanii ATCC 9614 was used in this study. The strain was reactivated in reinforced clostridial medium (RCM) and incubated at 37 °C until it reached an absorbance (*Abs*) of 0.8 at 600 nm (Bio Spectrum SP-220) at a concentration of approximately 1.05 g L⁻¹. The culture was stored in cryogenic tubes at - 80 °C, containing 1.0 mL of bacterial suspension and 0.5 mL of 50% glycerol for later use.

5.2.1.2 Pre-inoculum and inoculum

The stock culture of *P. freudenreichii* was grown in sealed 100 mL serum bottles containing 70 mL of culture medium composed of (g L⁻¹) yeast extract (10), tryptic soy broth (5), K₂HPO₄ (0.25), MnSO₄ (0.05), glucose (3) and (15) for the pre-inoculum and inoculum mediums, respectively. Components of the medium and the carbon source were sterilized separately at 121 °C for 20 min. Then the medium was mixed aseptically, and 2 mL L⁻¹ sterile resazurin (0.025%) was added to the medium as an indicator of anaerobiosis. All experiments were performed at 37 °C without shaking, in an anaerobic condition promoted by spraying N₂ gas for 30 min into the serum bottles before inoculation. The pre-inoculum culture was evaluated at 24 h and 48 h, and the best result for growth was used to inoculate another medium. Cells were washed with sterile peptone water 0.1% (p/v), centrifuged, and resuspended in culture medium to transfer 10% (v/v) of the suspension to the inoculum media, incubated for 48 h to establish the growth time needed to transfer to the bioreactor. Methodology was adapted from Stowers; Cox e Rodriguez, (2014).

5.2.1.3 Batch fermentation

Fermentation was carried out in a 1.5 L bioreactor (New Brunswick BioFlo®/CelliGen® 115) containing 0.75 L of culture medium, the same as mentioned in 5.2.1.2, differing in the glucose (30 g L⁻¹) and yeast extract (15 g L⁻¹) content.

To inoculate the fermentation medium, 3 volumes of 70 mL of inoculum were centrifuged and washed with sterile peptone water (0.1%), and resuspended in a volume corresponding to 10% (v/v) of the working volume of the bioreactor. Fermentation was carried out at 37 °C for 144 h at 150 rpm, with automated pH control maintained at 6.8 ± 0.2, adding sterile 1 M NaOH. Batch fermentation was performed under anaerobic conditions obtained by sprinkling N₂ gas in the medium for 30 min before inoculation, and the fermentation time was fixed based on previous studies on the total consumption of the carbon source by *P. freudenreichii*. Samples of 2 mL were collected at predetermined times for quantification of sugars and organic acids (LIU *et al.*, 2012b).. At the end of the fermentation, the entire Propionic Fermentation Broth (PFB) was centrifuged, filtered with 0.22 µm membranes, and stored at -24 °C for later use.

5.2.1.4 Analytical methods

The growth of the inoculums was monitored by absorbance at 600 nm by spectrophotometer (Bio Spectrum SP-220). Samples were centrifuged (10 min at 10.000 rpm, Centrifuge HT MCD - 2000) and washed with 0.1% peptone water (w/v) (2 times), the sediment was dried at 100 °C for 24 h, for determination of dry cell weight (DCW g L⁻¹). The supernatants were filtered with 0.22 µm membranes and used to determine glucose and products (PA, AA, and SA) by high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) on a Shimadzu LC-20A, equipped with an Aminex HPX -87H column (300 x 7.8 mm, Bio-Rad) and a refractive index detector. Operating conditions were as follows: 5 mM H₂SO₄ as mobile phase, flow rate, 0.6 mL min⁻¹ and column and detector temperature of 50 °C (AMMAR *et al.*, 2020).

5.2.1.5 Kinetic analysis

A polynomial fit was performed for PA production, substrate consumption and biomass production data by using Office Excel 2016 (Microsoft®, USA). The propionic fermentation efficiency, the fermentative parameters were calculated using the equations presented in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1 - Equations for determining the kinetic parameters of fermentation.

Parameter	Equation	Unit
Maximum specific growth rate	$\ln X = \ln X_0 + \mu_{\max} \cdot t$	h^{-1}
Specific growth rate	$\mu_X = \frac{1}{X} \frac{dX}{dt}$	h^{-1}
Specific product formations rate	$\mu_P = \frac{1}{X} \frac{dP}{dt}$	$\text{g}_P \cdot \text{g}_X^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$
Specific substrate consumption rate	$\mu_S = \frac{1}{X} \left(-\frac{dS}{dt} \right)$	$\text{g}_S \cdot \text{g}_X^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$
Conversion of substrate to cells	$Y_{X/S} = \frac{dX}{dS}$	$\text{g}_X \cdot \text{g}_S^{-1}$
Conversion of substrate to product	$Y_{P/S} = \frac{dP}{dS}$	$\text{g}_P \cdot \text{g}_S^{-1}$
Volumetric productivity	$Q_P = \frac{Pf - Pi}{t}$	$\text{g}_P \cdot \text{L}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$
Volumetric productivity of Biomass	$Q_x = \frac{Xf - Xi}{t}$	$\text{g}_X \cdot \text{L}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$
Efficiency	$\eta = \frac{Y_{P/S}}{Y'_{P/S}} \times 100$	%

In which X is the cell concentration (g L^{-1}), P is the product concentration (g L^{-1}), S is the substrate concentration (g L^{-1}), η the process efficiency. $Y'_{P/S}$ is the theoretical stoichiometric glucose conversion factor into propionic acid = 0.55 g/g

5.2.2 Inhibitory action of Propionic Fermentation Broth (PFB) on *S. Typhimurium*

5.2.2.1 Bacterial strain and seed culture

Salmonella enterica subspecies *enterica* serovar Typhimurium ATCC 14028 used in the antimicrobial activity assays was purchased from André Tosello Foundation - Tropical Culture Collection, Brazil. The strain was reactivated in Brain-heart infusion (BHI, Kasvi®, Brazil) broth (pH 7.4) for 18 h at 37 °C, and stored in cryoprotectant at -24 °C for further use. Seed culture was prepared by transferring 100 μL of the stock

culture into BHI and incubated with the same methodology described for reactivation (PAGANINI *et al.*, 2022).

5.2.2.2 Preparation of PFB solutions at pH 4.5, 5.5 and 6.5

The fermentation broth was adjusted with 1 M HCl to pHs 4.5, 5.5, and 6.5 using pH meter (Kasvi®, K39-2014B, Brazil), that corresponding to an average pH of the chicken gastrointestinal tract (GIT) (COX *et al.*, 1972; MABELEBELE *et al.*, 2013; RODRIGUES; CHOCT, 2018). Then, the concentrations of the organic acids in the PFB adjusted to pHs (4.5, 5.5, and 6.5) were analyzed by HPLC using the same conditions cited in 5.2.1.4. Solutions were stored at -24 °C for further analysis of their inhibitory effect.

5.2.2.3 Determination of the Minimal Inhibitory Concentration (MIC) and minimum bactericidal concentration (MBC) of PFB

In this study, the PFB doses were determined based on the concentration of PA present in the broth. Different concentrations of PFB at varying pH levels: pH 4.5 (2, 3.5, 4, 7, 10, 20, and 22 mM), pH 5.5 (15, 25, 30, 40, 50, 60, and 100 mM), and pH 6.5 (20, 50, 70, 90, and 92 mM) based on previous tests. The aim of the experiment was to determine the MIC and MBC of PFB on *S. Typhimurium*. The tests were performed in 16 mL tubes with work volume of 10 mL.

The culture media consisted of PFB with pH adjusted to the desired values, sterile BHI medium adjusted to pH 4.5, 5.5, and 6.5 with 1 M HCl, and *S. Typhimurium* suspension ($\pm 10^6$ CFU mL⁻¹).

Control treatments were evaluated at three pH levels, with broth and inoculum, without the addition of PFB. Tubes were incubated at 37°C for 48 h and samples were collected at predetermined times. MIC was defined as the lowest concentration of antimicrobial compound (PFB) at which growth inhibition of *S. Typhimurium* was observed. The CBM was determined as the lowest concentration of PFB that had a reduction of 3 logarithmic cycles in 48 h.

5.2.2.4 PFB undissociated minimum inhibitory concentration

The MIC of undissociated PFB at pHs (4.5, 5.5, and 6.5) for *S. Typhimurium* were calculated based on Eq. (5.1) (WEMMENHOVE *et al.*, 2016).

$$[HA] = \frac{[PFB]}{1+10^{pH-pKa}} \quad (5.1)$$

in which, $[HA]$ is the undissociated concentration of PA and AA present in PFB, Ka is the acid dissociation constant ($pKa = -\log Ka$), in which pKa PA = 4.89, and pKa AA = 4.76.

5.2.2.5 Determination of the fractional inhibitory concentration (FIC)

In addition, the MIC of PA and AA were individually evaluated in previous studies (please see chapter 2 and 3 of this thesis). MIC of PA and AA in PFB compounds were converted to fractional inhibitory concentrations (FIC) according to equations (5.2) and (5.3) (LÓPEZ-MALO *et al.*, 2007).

$$FIC_{PA} = \frac{MIC_{PA} \text{ in the PFB}}{\text{individual } MIC_{PA}} \quad (5.2)$$

$$FIC_{AA} = \frac{MIC_{AA} \text{ in the PFB}}{\text{individual } MIC_{AA}} \quad (5.3)$$

The fractional inhibitory concentration index (FIC_{index}) was calculated to evaluate the synergy between the OA in PFB from the FIC values of each acid, as described by Eq. (5.4).

$$FIC_{index} = FIC_{PA} + FIC_{AA} \quad (5.4)$$

If the interaction between PA and AA is additive, the $FIC_{index} = 1$ (Eq. 5.4). When the relationship is synergistic, the sum of the $FIC_{index} < 1$. If it is antagonistic, the $FIC_{index} > 1$ (LEÓN PELÁEZ *et al.*, 2012).

5.2.3 Evaluation of the behavior of *S. Typhimurium* in petrochemical-based OA

Two commercial OA products from petrochemical sources, kindly donated by an additive company of Santa Catarina, Brazil, were evaluated. The products are currently used in raw materials and feed to control *Salmonella*, fungi, and other bacteria often found in the poultry industry. Mixtures of OA were named MOA1 (liquid formulation) and MOA2 (powder formulation). There is no information about the OA concentrations in the mixture, but it is known to contain PA, AA, SA, LA. The experiments were performed in 16 mL tubes with a final volume of 10 mL containing BHI medium adjusted to pHs (4.5, 5.5, and 6.5) with 1 M HCl, suspension of $\sim 10^6$ CFU mL⁻¹ *S. Typhimurium*, 2000 ppm (v/v) of MOA1 and 1500 ppm (w/v) of MOA2, evaluated separately at each pH, according to manufacturer recommendation. The tubes were incubated following the same methodology mentioned in 5.2.2.3.

5.2.4 Microbial enumeration

Samples with 150 μ L were collected and serially diluted in 2 mL microtubes with sterile 0.1% (w/v) peptone water. Afterward, 1 mL of the appropriate dilutions were seeded onto BHI Agar using the pour-plating method. The plates were incubated at 37 °C / 24h. Only the plates that presented counts between 30 and 300 colonies were used for the count, expressed in log N CFU mL⁻¹.

5.2.5 Primary and secondary mathematical modeling

Baranyi and Roberts (BAR) model given by the Eqs. (5.5), (5.6), (5.7) (BARANYI *et al.*, 1995; BARANYI; ROBERTS, 1994), is commonly used as a primary model to describe the growth of microorganisms as a function of time. In which, y is the logarithm of the bacterial concentration (CFU mL⁻¹) after the time interval t , y_0 is the logarithm of the initial bacterial concentration (CFU mL⁻¹), y_{max} is the logarithm of maximum population (CFU mL⁻¹), μ_{max} is the maximum specific growth rate (h⁻¹), $F(t)$ is the adjustment function, λ is the *lag* phase duration (h), h_0 represents the physiological state of the cell. The BAR model was fitted to the growth data of *S. Typhimurium* in the different antimicrobials and pH.

$$\log y(t) = \log y_0 + \mu_{max} \frac{F(t)}{\ln(10)} - \frac{1}{m \ln(10)} \ln \left(1 + \frac{e^{m \mu_{max} F(t)} - 1}{10^{m(\log y_{max} - \log y_0)}} \right) \quad (5.5)$$

$$F(t) = t + \left(\frac{1}{\mu_{max}} \right) \ln(e^{(-\mu_{max}t)} + e^{(-h_0)} - e^{[-\mu_{max}t - h_0]}) \quad (5.6)$$

$$h_0 = \mu_{max} \lambda \quad (5.7)$$

The Weibull model Eq. (5.8) was fitted to the *S. Typhimurium* inactivation data. In which, N is the logarithm of the concentration at time t , N_0 is the logarithm of the initial microbial concentration, α represents the shape parameter (dimensionless) and β is the scale factor (h) (MAFART *et al.*, 2001).

$$\text{Log} \left(\frac{N}{N_0} \right) = - \left(\frac{t}{\beta} \right)^\alpha \quad (5.8)$$

The Weibull model was used to determine the time to promote 3 decimal reductions (t_{3DR}) of *S. Typhimurium*, $\text{Log} \left(\frac{N}{N_0} \right) = 3$, for each PFB concentration evaluated at each pH. The t_{3DR} values obtained at each PFB concentration were used to perform secondary modeling. The selected secondary model was used to estimate by extrapolation the concentration of PFB required to promote 3 log *S. Typhimurium* reductions in 3 h. According to Rodrigues and Choct (2018), 3 h is the approximate intestinal transit time for chickens.

The PFB concentrations predicted by the secondary model to reduce 3 log *S. Typhimurium* were validated experimentally.

The secondary exponential and square Root models (RATKOWSKY *et al.*, 1982) Eqs. (5.9) and (5.10), respectively, were used to describe the effect of PFB concentration on the scale factor parameter (β) of the primary Weibull model, and on the maximum specific growth rate (μ_{max}) of the BAR model. In which, p represents the primary model parameter evaluated, a (1/h), b (1/mM), and c (1/(mM \sqrt{h})) are fitting parameters, PFB is the acid mixture concentration calculated based on the PA concentration (mM), and PFB_{lim} is the theoretical minimum concentration for no growth of *S. Typhimurium*.

$$p = a \cdot \exp(b[PFB]) \quad (5.9)$$

$$\sqrt{p} = c.(PFB - [PFB]_{lim}) \quad (5.10)$$

The fitting procedure for the primary and secondary models was performed using Matlab R2016a (MathWorks®, Natick, USA) and Office Excel 2016 (Microsoft®, USA), respectively.

5.2.6 Statistical analysis

All growth, inactivation, and fermentation experiments were performed at least twice. To describe the behavior of the strain, models were fitted to the data separately for each replicate. The means and \pm standard deviations of the experimental data were analyzed using statistical tools in Microsoft Office Excel® (2016) for Windows 10. The quality of the mathematical model fits was evaluated using the statistical indices, coefficient of determination (R^2) Eq. (5.11), the root-mean-square error ($RMSE$) Eq. (5.12), and the Accuracy factor (A_f) Eq. (5.13) (ROSS, 1996). $RMSE = 0$, R^2 values, and $A_f = 1$ indicate a perfect fit between the observed data and the data predicted by the models.

$$R^2 = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (pred_i - obs_i)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (obs_i - average)^2} \quad (5.11)$$

$$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (pred_i - obs_i)^2}{n-x}} \quad (5.12)$$

$$A_f = 10^{\left(\frac{\sum \log(pred_i/obs_i)}{n}\right)} \quad (5.13)$$

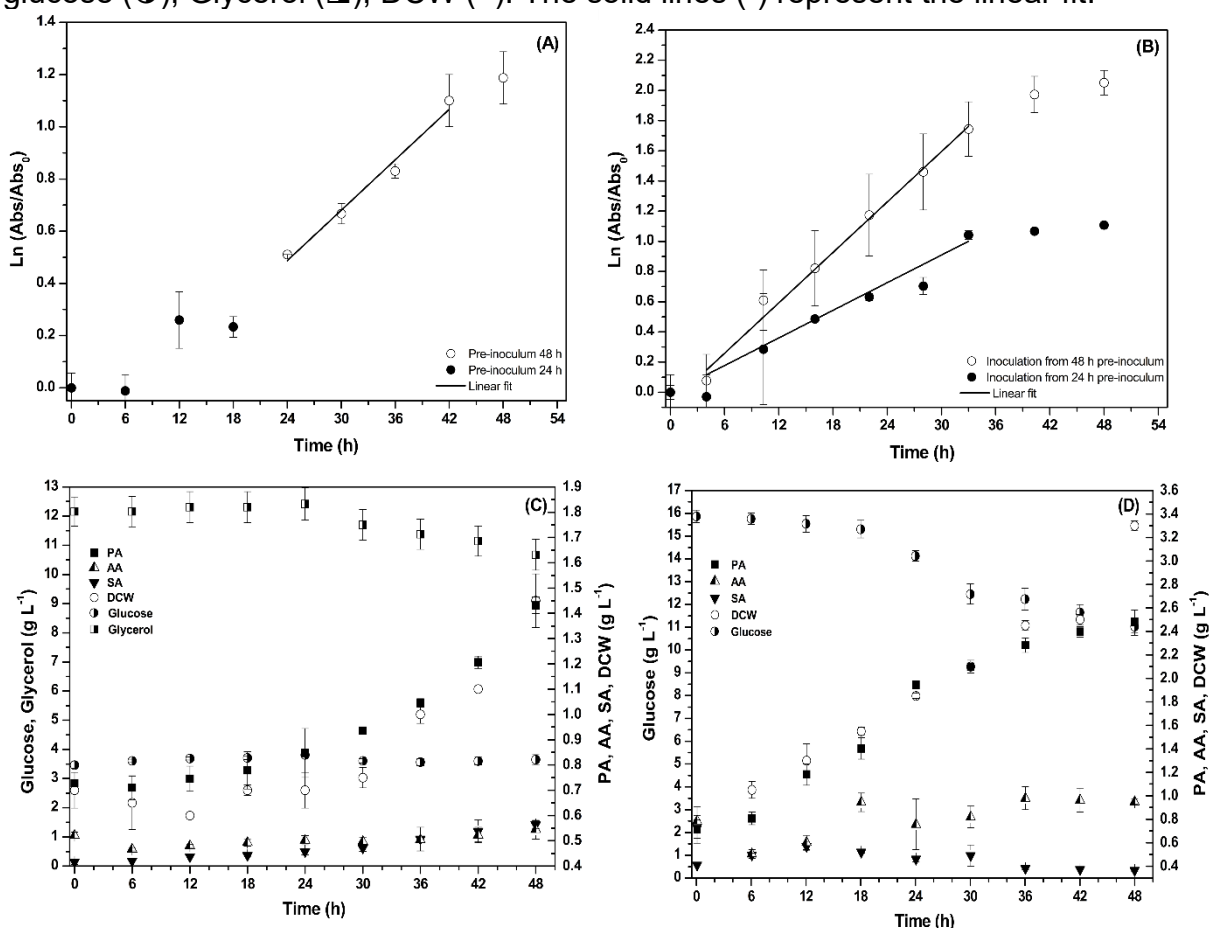
In which $pred_i$ are the i^{th} predicted data by the models, obs_i are the i^{th} experimental observations, x is the number of parameters in the model, n is the amount of i observations.

5.3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

5.3.1 Pre-inoculum and inoculum for fermentation

The growth performance of the pre-inoculum and inoculum was evaluated by linearly fitting the $\ln(Abs/Abs_0)$ profiles (Figure 5.1). The solid line represents the linear fit, and the maximum specific growth rate (μ_{max}) was determined by the angular coefficient observed in the equations presented in Table S5.6. It can be seen that the 48 h incubation pre-inoculum starts exponential growth after 24h (Figure 5.1A), with $\mu_{max} = 0.032 \text{ h}^{-1}$ and a final cell concentration (X_f) of 1.45 g L^{-1} (Table S5.6). Inoculum grown from 48h pre-inoculum showed higher $\mu_{max} = 0.055 \text{ h}^{-1}$ than inoculum grown under 24h pre-inoculum ($\mu_{max} = 0.030 \text{ h}^{-1}$).

Figure 5.1 - $\ln(Abs/Abs_0)$ for two sets of samples. The first set (A) includes 24h (●), and 48h (■) pre-inoculum culture. The second set (B) includes 24h (●) and 48h (■) inoculum cultures. (C) and (D) represent the profile of sugars, products and cells of the pre-inoculum and inoculum of *P. freudenreichii*, respectively. PA (■), AA (▲), SA (▼), glucose (●), Glycerol (■), DCW (■). The solid lines (-) represent the linear fit.



Therefore, the incubation time of 48 h was chosen for the pre-inoculum and the time of 24 h was chosen for the inoculum cultivation.

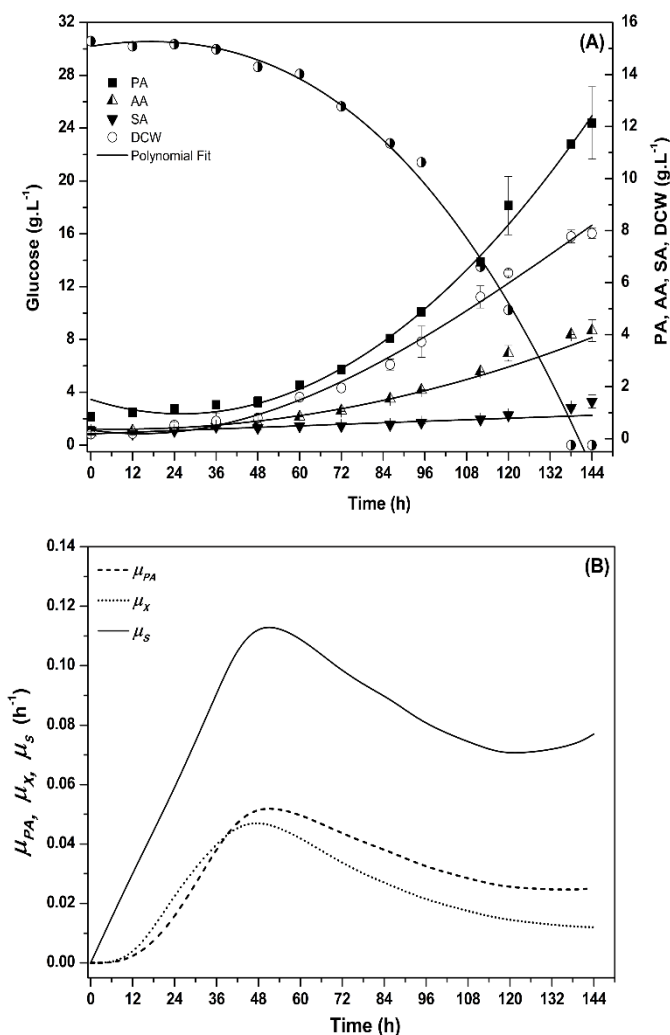
Since the culture was carried out from the stock culture, it was observed that the strain only consumed glycerol in the pre-inoculum, which was used as a cryoprotectant (Figure 5.1C). For the pre-inoculum and inoculum, the final PA concentrations were approximately 1.4 and 2.4 g L⁻¹, respectively.

5.3.2 Batch production of PA

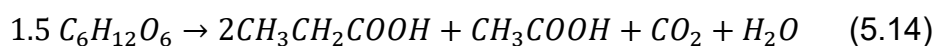
In propionic fermentation PA, AA, and SA are produced, which promote the reduction of pH in the medium and bacterial inhibition (DISHISHA *et al.*, 2015). To increase higher cell production, 15 g L⁻¹ yeast extract were added to the medium. The amino acids present in the nitrogen source can act as a buffer and stabilize the pH of the fermentation, decreasing the inhibitory effect on cells, and also reducing the addition of NaOH to keep the pH at 6.8 (GUAN *et al.*, 2013; PIWOWAREK *et al.*, 2019).

Figure 5.2 presents the kinetic profile of microbial PA production, and solid lines represent a polynomial fit to the experimental data to calculate the rates of substrate consumption, PA and cell production. The equations can be seen in Table S5.7.

Figure 5.2 - PA production by *P. freudenreichii*. PA (■), AA (▲), SA (▼), glucose (●), DCW (■). The solid lines represent polynomial fits (A). Specific growth rates (μ_X ····), substrate consumption (μ_S —) and PA production (μ_{PA} ---) for propionic fermentation (B).



The highest levels of product formation, complete glucose consumption, and cell production were observed at 144 h of fermentation (Figure 5.2A). Similar behavior was observed in the study by Wang e Yang (2013). A maximum PA production of 12.14 g L⁻¹ and a $Q_{PA} = 0.08$ g L⁻¹ h⁻¹ were observed in 144 h of fermentation, considered low values but consistent with the process operations used in this study (Table 5.2). Consumption of 100% glucose provided an PA: AA ratio of 2.92:1 (g g⁻¹), higher than the stoichiometric ratio of (2:1), according to the following stoichiometric equation (Eq. 5.14).



P. freudenreichii presented $\mu_{max} = 0.050 \text{ h}^{-1}$ and after 48 h of cultivation, the specific growth rate decreased (Figure 5.2B). The profiles of the specific growth rates and product formation present a standard kinetics of PA production associated with growth (Figure 5.2B).

The graphs of the correlation between carbon produced and carbon consumed to determine the yields, the linear equations obtained by fitting to the experimental data, and the coefficients of determination (R^2) are presented in Figure S5.8 and Table S5.9.

Table 5.2 - Kinetic parameters of PA fermentation by *P. freudenreichii*

	Final concentration (g L ⁻¹)	Yield (g g ⁻¹)		Productivity (g L ⁻¹ h ⁻¹)	
PA	12.14 ± 1.39	$Y_{PA/S}$	0.36 ± 0.02	Q_{PA}	0.08 ± 0.01
AA	4.15 ± 0.42	$Y_{AA/S}$	0.12 ± 0.00	Q_{AA}	0.03 ± 0.01
SA	1.42 ± 0.24	$Y_{SA/S}$	0.03 ± 0.01	Q_{SA}	0.008 ± 0.00
X_f	7.90 ± 0.21	$Y_{X/S}$	0.26 ± 0.00	Q_X	0.05 ± 0.00

X_f represents the final cell concentration, S is the substrate, Q is the volumetric productivity.

The results obtained in this study (Table 5.2) demonstrate satisfactory correspondence with the findings reported by Piwowarek et al. (2019). Their study, which evaluated PA production by *P. freudenreichii* using 25 g L⁻¹ pure sugars (glucose, fructose, and sucrose) under comparable operational conditions, yielded values of 0.38 g_{PA} g_S⁻¹, 0.16 g_{AA} g_S⁻¹, 0.065 g L⁻¹ h⁻¹ and 2.4:1 for $Y_{PA/S}$, $Y_{AA/S}$, Q_{PA} , and PA:AA ratio, respectively. Furthermore, the global conversion efficiency of the substrate to PA in this study was 65.4%.

5.3.3 Inhibitory action of PFB in *S. Typhimurium*: MIC, MBC and fractional inhibitory concentration index (FIC_{index})

Studies on the effect of petroleum-based OA on *S. Typhimurium* have been conducted for a long time (BECKER; WITTMANN, 2015). However, this study focused on evaluating the effect of the OA compound produced by *P. freudenreichii*, which is considered to be a natural product.

The PFB was adjusted to pHs (4.5, 5.5, and 6.5) with 1 M HCl, then used for inhibition of *S. Typhimurium*. The concentration of each acid in the broth after adjustment is shown in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3 - Concentration of organic acids present in PFB at pHs (4.5, 5.5 and 6.5).

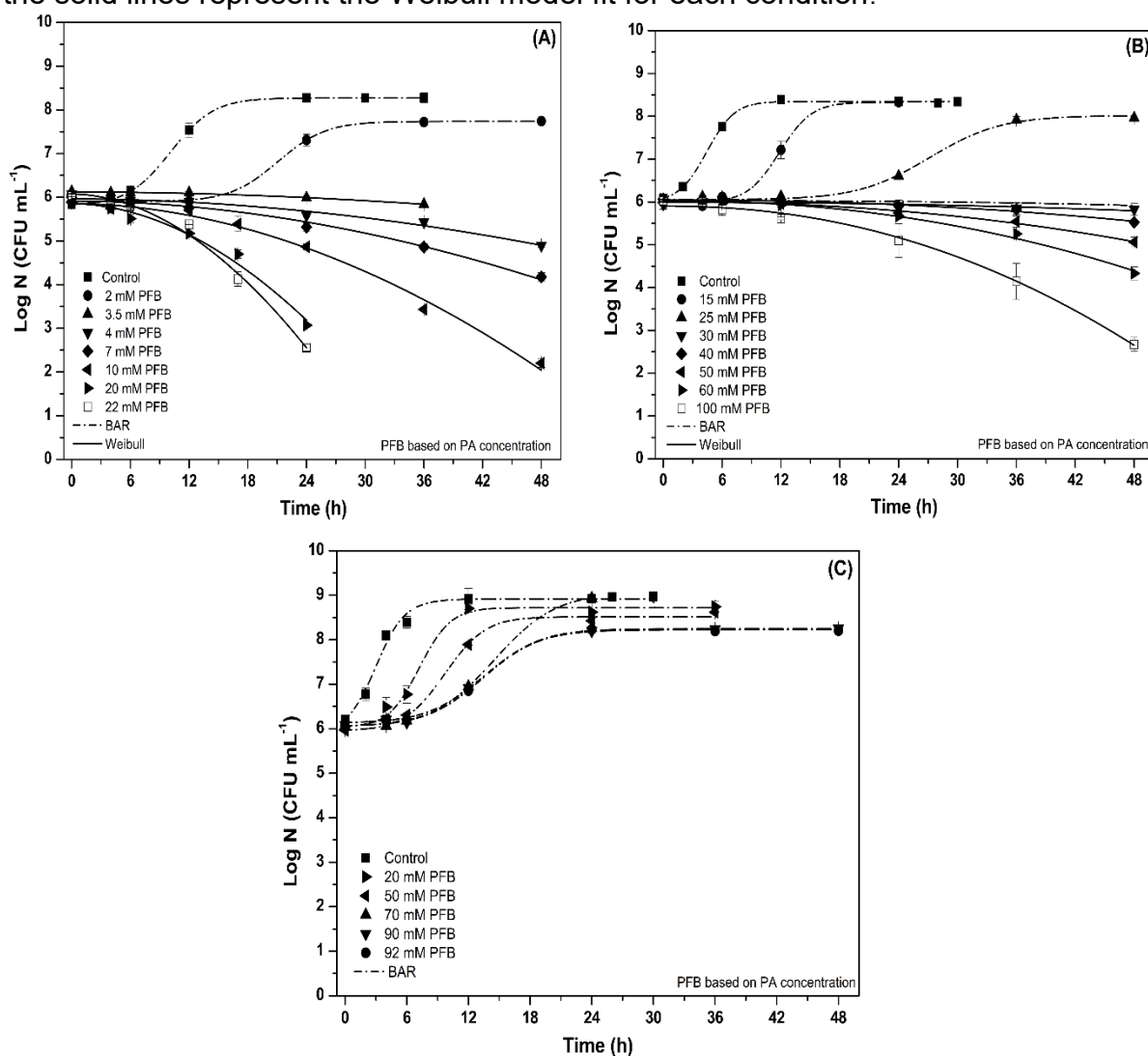
pH	PFB		
	PA (g L ⁻¹)	AA (g L ⁻¹)	SA (g L ⁻¹)
4.5	8.22 ± 0.4	2.82 ± 0.4	1.24 ± 0.3
5.5	12.6 ± 0.2	4.2 ± 0.08	1.64 ± 0.2
6.5	11.9 ± 0.3	3.9 ± 0.09	1.5 ± 0.2

The PFB concentrations evaluated were calculated based on the concentration of PA present in the broth. MIC was determined as the lowest concentration of PFB at each pH that inhibited *S. Typhimurium* growth within 48 h. MBC was determined as the lowest concentration of PFB compound that could reduce 3 log CFU mL⁻¹ of *S. Typhimurium* concentration in 48 h (LEVISON, 2004; PHILLIPS *et al.*, 1998).

To calculate the undissociated concentrations of PA and AA in PFB, pH was measured at the end of the 48 h experiment (data not shown).

Figure 5.3 present the behavior of *S. Typhimurium* exposed to PFB at the pH evaluated. The MIC of PFB at pH 4.5 for *S. Typhimurium* was 3.5 mM, with 1.48 mM AA present in the compound, as shown in Figure 5.3A and Table 5.4. According to Eq. 5.1, pH values measured at the end of 48 h and the pK_a PA = 4.89 and pK_a AA = 4.76 values, the MIC of PA and AA from PFB at pH 4.5 in the undissociated form were 2.49 mM and 0.95 mM, respectively.

Figure 5.3 - Growth and inactivation curves of *S. Typhimurium* treated with **PFB at pH 4.5 (A)** with 2 mM PA + 0.85 mM AA + 0.19 mM SA (●), 3.5 mM PA + 1.48 AA + 0.33 mM SA (▲), 4 mM PA + 1.69 mM AA + 0.38 mM SA (▼), 7 mM PA + 2.96 mM AA + 0.66 mM SA (◆), 10 mM PA + 4.23 mM AA + 0.95 mM SA (◄), 20 mM PA + 8.46 mM AA + 1.89 mM SA (►), 22 mM PA + 9.31 mM AA + 2.08 mM SA (□); **PFB at pH 5.5 (B)** containing 15 mM PA + 6.4 mM AA + 1.3 mM SA (●), 25 mM PA + 10.6 mM AA + 2.1 mM SA (▲), 30 mM PA + 12.7 mM AA + 2.5 mM SA (▼), 40 mM PA + 16.9 mM AA + 3.4 mM SA (◆), 50 mM PA + 21.2 mM AA + 4.2 mM SA (◄), 60 mM PA + 25.4 mM AA + 5 mM SA (►), 100 mM PA + 42.4 mM AA + 8.4 mM SA (□); and **PFB at pH 6.5 (C)** with 20 mM PA + 8.4 mM AA + 1.7 mM SA (►), 50 mM PA + 21.1 mM AA + 4.1 mM SA (◄), 70 mM PA + 29.6 mM AA + 5.8 mM SA (▲), 90 mM PA + 38 mM AA + 7.4 mM SA (▼), 92 mM PA + 38.8 mM AA + 7.6 mM SA (●). All Control assays are represented by the symbol (■). The dash-dot lines represent the BAR model fit and the solid lines represent the Weibull model fit for each condition.



In Figure 5.3B and Table 5.4, it can be seen that the MIC of PFB for *S. Typhimurium* at pH 5.5 was 30 mM, containing 12.7 mM AA in the mixture. PA and AA

undissociated concentrations at pH 5.5 were 5.91 mM and 1.95 mM, respectively (Eq. 5.1).

The MBC of PFB for *S. Typhimurium* at pH 4.5 and 5.5 were 10 mM and 100 mM, respectively (Table 5.4). It was observed that the lower the pH, the lower the bactericidal concentration since the pH of the medium favors the permeability of the acid in its protonated form.

It was impossible to determine the MIC of PFB at pH 6.5 because the final concentration of PA in the fermentation broth was insufficient to inhibit growth.

To determine the type of interaction between PA and AA of the PFB at pH 4.5 and 5.5 to inhibit *S. Typhimurium* growth, the individual MIC of PA and AA had to be calculated previously. These values were reported in previous chapters of the present work (chapters 2 and 3), which corresponded at 7 mM to individual MIC_{PA} and 4 mM to individual MIC_{AA} at pH 4.5. At pH 5.5, the individual MIC_{PA} and MIC_{AA} values were 15 mM and 10 mM, respectively. Then FIC_{PA} and FIC_{AA} (Eqs. 5.2 and 5.3) were calculated to determine the FIC_{index} (Eq. 5.4).

Propionic acid bacteria (PAB), besides producing PA as primary product, AA and SA as secondary products, are also known to produce bacteriocins such as propionicin T1, propionicin F and protease-activated antimicrobial peptide (PAMP) (GUAN *et al.*, 2015). However, most bacteriocins have a limited spectrum, inhibiting only bacteria related to their producer, such as other *Propionibacterium* (FAYE *et al.*, 2000). Propionicin F, produced by *P. freudenreichii*, has intraspecific bactericidal activity, i.e. it inactivates only *P. freudenreichii* strains (BREDE *et al.*, 2004). In addition, low levels of bacteriocins are produced when cells are cultured in a liquid medium, limiting their practical utility (HOLO *et al.*, 2002). Therefore, the inhibition of *S. Typhimurium* observed in the present study was considered only by the contact of the pathogen with the OA present in PFB.

The combined antimicrobial action of organic acids present in PFB was evaluated in this study. At pH 4.5, the combination of PA and AA of PFB exhibited synergistic activity, with $FIC_{index} = 0.87$ (Eq. 5.4). It means that the PA and AA concentrations of PFB were 2-fold and 2.7-fold lower in inhibiting *S. Typhimurium* compared to the individual MIC_{PA} and MIC_{AA} values (Table 5.4). Showing that at pH 4.5, the interaction between the acids increased the inhibition effect, with 71% PA and 64.2% AA in the undissociated form.

At pH 5.5, the interaction between the PA and AA of PFB had an antagonistic effect, with $FIC_{index} = 3.27$ (Eq. 5.4). This indicates that one of the acids has interfered with the action of the other. This effect can occur through several mechanisms, such as changes in the permeability of the cell membrane (BAE; LEE, 2015). At pH 5.5 there is more salt than acid in the medium, which promotes an increase in membrane polarity, decreasing the diffusion of the acids into the cytoplasm. Therefore, a higher concentration of each acid in the PFB than the concentration of the individual components is required to obtain an inhibitory effect on *S. Typhimurium*. Despite the lack of synergy between PA and AA in PFB at pH 5.5, the MIC of undissociated PA in PFB (19.7%) was lower than its individual MIC (23.6%, see chapter 3). On the other hand, the MIC in the undissociated form of AA showed no difference in percentage between PFB and individual (15.4%, see chapter 4). It is possible that PA interfered with the mixture's inhibitory effect, as a higher concentration of PA would be needed to achieve the same individual percentage in undissociated form.

In this study, the MIC of SA was not determined due to the low concentration of the acid present in PFB.

PFB inhibitory concentrations can be effective in various regions of the digestive tract of chickens. These digestive regions are divided into the crop, proventriculus and gizzards, intestines, and cecum (SVIHUS, 2014). At the crop, the region immediately following the neck, the average pH is 4.5, depending on the chicken's diet (RODRIGUES; CHOCT, 2018). Within the proventriculus and gizzard, the pH is about 3 to 5. In the intestines and cecum, the pH ranges from 5.7 to 6.5 (MENEZES-BLACKBURN; GABLER; GREINER, 2015; WALES; ALLEN; DAVIES, 2010). Therefore, the MIC of the PFB determined here is worth analyzing *in vivo*.

Table 5.4 - Parameters (\pm standard deviation) and statistical indices by fitting the BAR and Weibull models to the experimental data of the growth and inactivation curves of *S. Typhimurium* in BHI medium with PFB at pH 4.5, 5.5, and 6.5.

(to be continued)

pH 4.5								
PA (mM)	Experimental value	BAR Model parameters h_0 fixed = 8.45		Weibull Model parameters α fixed = 1.71	Experimental value	Statistical indices		Log Reduction (48 h)
	y_0 (Log CFU mL ⁻¹)	y_{max} (Log CFU mL ⁻¹)	μ_{max} (h ⁻¹)	β (h)	N_0 (Log CFU mL ⁻¹)	R^2	$RMSE$ (Log CFU mL ⁻¹)	
Control	5.84 \pm 0.05	8.28 \pm 0.05	0.51 \pm 0.09			0.998	0.055	1.004
2	5.91 \pm 0.01	7.74 \pm 0.01	0.44 \pm 0.02			0.994	0.069	1.007
3.5	6.14 \pm 0.01	0.63 \pm 0.11	0.06 \pm 0.00			0.951	0.025	1.003
3.5				69.78 \pm 3.81	6.12 \pm 0.01	0.960	0.023	1.003
4				46.51 \pm 0.07	5.96 \pm 0.04	0.952	0.09	1.005
7				35.26 \pm 0.76	5.91 \pm 0.04	0.985	0.084	1.012
10				23.82 \pm 0.05	5.85 \pm 0.06	0.984	0.170	1.030
20				14.36 \pm 0.03	5.85 \pm 0.03	0.976	0.156	1.023
22				12.42 \pm 0.09	6.07 \pm 0.04	0.987	0.155	1.020
pH 5.5								
PFB (mM)	Experimental value	Baranyi Model parameters h_0 fixed = 7.05		Weibull Model parameters α fixed = 2.14	Experimental value	Statistical indices		Log Reduction (48 h)
	y_0 (Log CFU mL ⁻¹)	y_{max} (Log CFU mL ⁻¹)	μ_{max}	β (h)	N_0 (Log CFU mL ⁻¹)	R^2	$RMSE$ (Log CFU mL ⁻¹)	
Control	6.03 \pm 0.04	8.35 \pm 0.00	0.78 \pm 0.03			0.998	0.044	1.003
15	6.00 \pm 0.00	8.33 \pm 0.04	0.69 \pm 0.03			0.997	0.063	1.006
25	6.06 \pm 0.01	8.01 \pm 0.04	0.30 \pm (h ⁻¹)0.00			0.996	0.058	1.007
30	6.04 \pm 0.10	3.25 \pm 0.91	0.05 \pm 0.02			0.615	0.050	1.005
30				103.6 \pm 11.5	5.99 \pm 0.11	0.690	0.048	1.007
40				66.46 \pm 1.65	6.05 \pm 0.07	0.924	0.053	1.006
50				50.08 \pm 4.94	6.00 \pm 0.05	0.982	0.044	1.006
60				38.14 \pm 1.01	6.03 \pm 0.00	0.983	0.080	1.009
100				27.73 \pm 1.23	5.90 \pm 0.03	0.981	0.173	1.030

Table 5.4 - Parameters (\pm standard deviation) and statistical indices by fitting the BAR and Weibull models to the experimental data of the growth and inactivation curves of *S. Typhimurium* in BHI medium with PFB at pH 4.5, 5.5, and 6.5.

(conclusion)

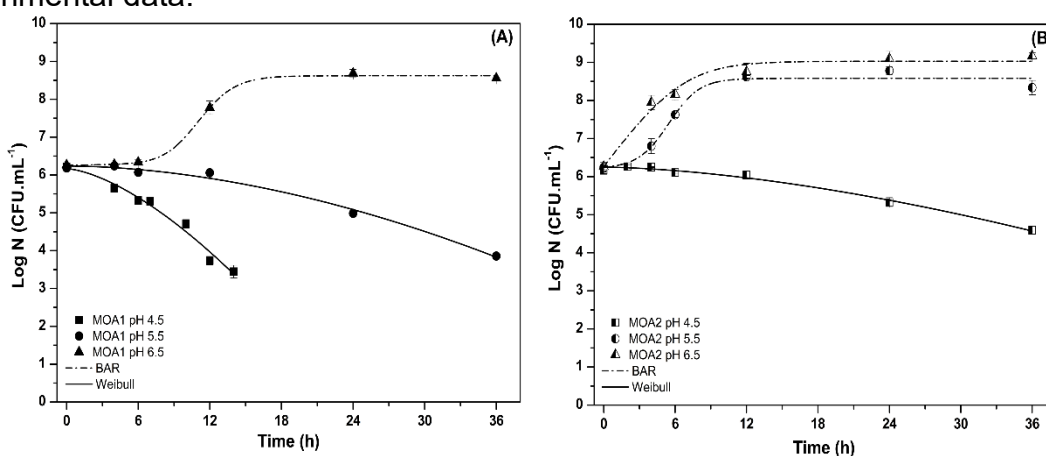
pH 6.5								
PFB (mM)	Experimental value	BAR Model parameters h_0 fixed = 4.28			Statistical indices			
	y_0 (Log CFU mL ⁻¹)	y_{max} (Log CFU mL ⁻¹)	μ_{max} (h ⁻¹)	λ (h)	R^2	$RMSE$ (Log CFU mL ⁻¹)	A_f	
Control	6.21 \pm 0.00	8.92 \pm 0.06	0.84 \pm 0.32	1.44 \pm 0.81	0.978	0.160	1.013	
20	6.06 \pm 0.04	8.72 \pm 0.05	0.78 \pm 0.07	5.54 \pm 0.49	0.988	0.130	1.012	
50	5.97 \pm 0.03	8.51 \pm 0.04	0.57 \pm 0.01	7.49 \pm 0.09	0.993	0.104	1.009	
70	6.07 \pm 0.03	9.03 \pm 0.04	0.40 \pm 0.00	10.8 \pm 0.07	0.999	0.040	1.004	
90	6.14 \pm 0.03	8.24 \pm 0.00	0.39 \pm 0.01	10.9 \pm 0.35	0.996	0.066	1.007	
92	6.07 \pm 0.01	8.22 \pm 0.01	0.40 \pm 0.01	10.7 \pm 0.36	0.998	0.047	1.005	

β is the scale factor, N_0 is the initial cell concentration fixed in the model, α is the mean of the shape factor estimated over the inactivation experiments. y_0 is the initial cell concentration fixed in the model, y_{max} is the maximum cell growth, μ_{max} is the maximum specific growth rate, h_0 fixed is the arithmetic mean of the experiments.

5.3.4 Evaluation of petrochemical-based OA on *S. Typhimurium*

To compare PFB results, the behavior of *S. Typhimurium* in contact with two commercial petroleum-based OA products was analyzed, MOA1 (Figure 5.4A) e MOA2 (Figure 5.5B). Both the products were evaluated at pH (4.5, 5.5, 6.5) according to the doses recommended by the manufacturer.

Figure 5.4 - Kinetics of *S. Typhimurium* in BHI medium adjusted to pH (4.5, 5.5, 6.5) with 1M HCl, containing a mixture of synthetic OA MOA 1(A) and MOA2 (B). The solid and dashed lines represent the fits of the Weibull and BAR models, respectively, to the experimental data.



The OA mixtures of MOA1 and MOA2 presented better inactivation efficiency of *S. Typhimurium* at pH 4.5 (Figure 5.5). This was expected, since these products are formed from weak OA, which have low ionization and therefore have better antimicrobial activity at pH equal to or lower than pK_a of each acid (DIBNER; BUTTIN, 2002; KHAN; IQBAL, 2016). No inhibition of the pathogen was observed at pH 6.5.

The antimicrobial MOA1 at pH 4.5 and pH 5.5 (Figure 5.4A) was able to reduce 2.75 and 2.33 log CFU mL⁻¹ of *S. Typhimurium* at 14 h and 36 h of contact, respectively (Table S5.9).

In this study, reductions of 2.81 and 3.49 log CFU mL⁻¹ of *S. Typhimurium* were observed in 24 h of contact with 20 and 22 mM PFB at pH 4.5, respectively (Table 5.7). These concentrations are equivalent to 1482 ppm and 1628 ppm and are values lower than the recommended use indicated by the producers of MOA1 (2000 ppm) or MOA2 (1500 ppm). Proving that PFB at pH 4.5 has satisfactory results, it can be a promising product for the inhibition of *S. Typhimurium* in the poultry industry.

5.3.5 Primary and secondary mathematical modeling

The growth and inactivation data obtained for *S. Typhimurium* were fitted to BAR (Eqs. 5.5, 5.6, 5.7) and Weibull (Eq. 5.8) models (Figure 5.3). All experiments started with an *S. Typhimurium* concentration of approximately 6 log (CFU mL⁻¹). The initial bacterial concentration values (y_0, N_0) were fixed in the BAR and Weibull models, respectively.

The mathematical modeling was carried out in two phases. In the first, the parameters ($y_{max}, \mu_{max}, \lambda, h_0$) of the BAR model and (β, α) of the Weibull model were estimated. Then, the arithmetic means of the h_0 values of the growth curves, except for the controls, and the mean of α were fixed in the models. The average h_0 values set in the BAR model were 8.45 ± 0.41 , 7.05 ± 1.72 , and 4.28 ± 0.58 , respectively for pHs 4.5, 5.5, and 6.5. The average α values were 1.71 ± 0.33 , 2.14 ± 0.48 , for pHs 4.5 and 5.5. Then, the second modeling step was run to estimate the parameters $y_{max}, \mu_{max}, \lambda$, of the BAR model and the parameters β of the Weibull model.

The inactivation curves observed in Figure 5.3A and 5.3B, showed a concave shape with $\alpha > 1$ (Table 5.7), meaning that the cells initially die slowly forming a shoulder, and then the death rate increases, indicating that the cells cannot withstand the treatment (VAN BOEKEL, 2002).

At pH 6.5, inactivation of *S. Typhimurium* by PFB could not be observed, since PA bioproduction was not high enough to promote an inhibitory effect. However, with increasing PFB concentration in the BHI medium, the longer was the *lag* phase time (Table 5.7).

The quality of the models' fit was analyzed considering the statistical indexes presented in Tables 5.7.

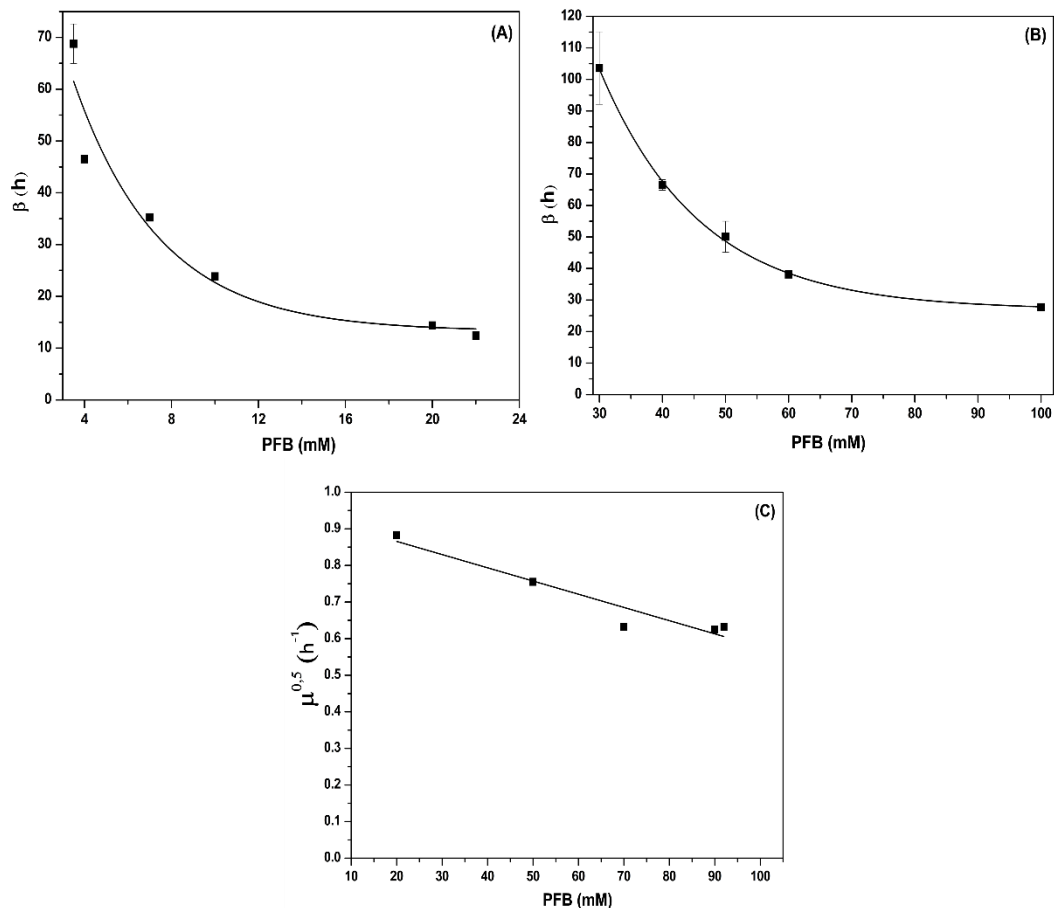
According to the $RMSE$, R^2 and A_f values (Tables 5.7), the correlation between the experimentally observed values and those predicted by the models was high, since the $RMSE$ values were close to zero and the accuracy and R^2 values were approximately 1. This indicates a good fit of the models to the data since the data predicted by the models did not differ much from the observed data.

In this study, mathematical BAR and Weibull models were carried out for *S. Typhimurium* data in 3.5 mM PFB at pH 4.5 and in 30 mM at pH 5.5 (Tables 5.7). In the BAR model, the μ_{max} data showed a deceleration of growth and the y_{max} values

showed a dying trend. These concentrations indicate the limit between the growth and no growth of the pathogen.

Secondary models are used to determine the effect of different environmental factors on the parameters of the primary models (TARLAK; OZDEMIR; MELIKOGLU, 2018). The secondary exponential and square root models were selected, based on the highest R^2 (Table 5.5), to describe the dependence of the scale factor (β) and the specific growth rate (μ_{max}) of the Weibull and BAR models, respectively, as a function of PFB concentration (Figure 5.5).

Figure 5.5 - Exponential secondary model of the β parameters as a function of PFB concentration at pH 4.5 (A) and pH 5.5 (B). Secondary square root model of μ_{max} as a function of PFB at pH 6.5 (C). The solid lines (—) represent the secondary model fits.



As observed in Figure 5.5A and 5.5B, increasing PFB concentration affects the scaling factor (β), which in this case would be the time to reach the first decimal reduction, having higher β values at pH 5.5. It means that at pH 4.5 and higher PFB

concentrations, lower is the β . The same influence is observed with μ_{max} (Figure 5.5C), with increasing PFB concentration at pH 6.5, lower is the growth rate.

Table 5.5 - Estimated values of the empirical parameters (a, b, c), $[PFB]_{lim}$ by fitting the exponential and square root secondary models to the β values, μ_{max} and the coefficient of determination (R^2).

Exponential model			
	a (1/h)	b (1/mM)	R^2
β pH 4.5 (A)	68.05	-0.08	0.860
β pH 5.5 (B)	135.95	-0.017	0.849
Square root model			
	c (1/mM. \sqrt{h})	$[PFB]_{lim}$ (mM)	R^2
$\sqrt{\mu_{max}}$ pH 5.5 (C)	-0.0036	260.58	0.923

The models presented a good fit to the data (Table 5.5) and can be used to evaluate the growth or inactivation of *S. Typhimurium* in the BHI medium to establish limits of PFB concentrations for *S. Typhimurium* control. Within the pH and PFB concentration conditions evaluated in this study.

5.3.6 Prediction of PFB concentration to promote 3-log reductions in 3 h

The time required to achieve 3 decimal reductions of *S. Typhimurium* (t_{3DR}) for each concentration of PFB at pH 4.5 and 5.5 were predicted from the model of Weibull Eq. (5.8).

Figure 5.6 presents the secondary exponential model fit of t_{3DR} as a function of each PFB concentration. The equations obtained from the fit (Eq. 5.15 and 5.16) were used to extrapolate the concentration of PFB required to achieve $t_{3DR} = 3$ h.

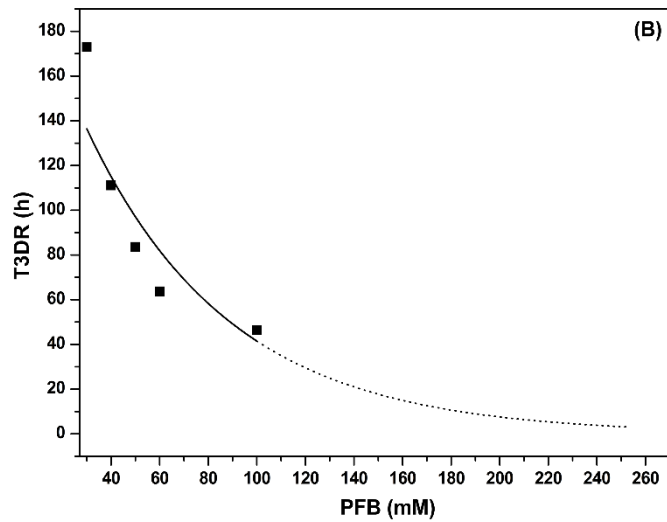
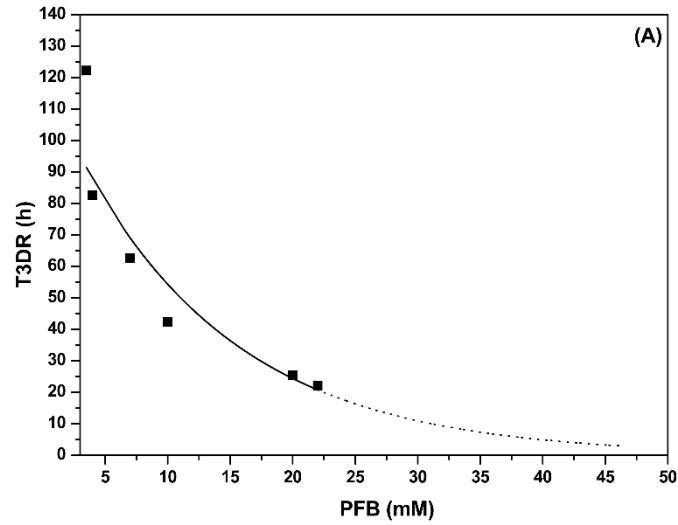
$$t_{3DR} = 120.98 e^{-0.08 PFB} \quad (5.15)$$

$$t_{3DR} = 227.16 e^{-0.017 PFB} \quad (5.16)$$

The concentrations of PFB required to achieve a 3-log reduction of *S. Typhimurium* in 3 h, obtained by extrapolation of Eq. 5.15 at pH 4.5 and Eq. 5.16 at pH 5.5 were 46.4 mM and 253.6 mM, respectively.

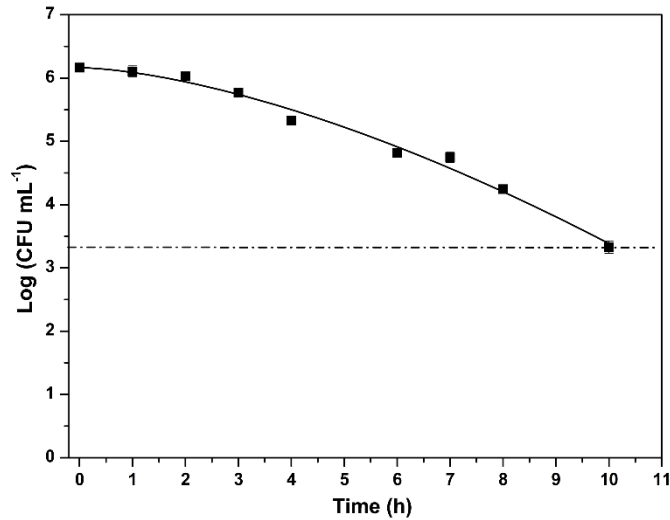
Figure 5.6 - Concentration for required for 3-log reductions of *S. Typhimurium* in 3 h of contact with PFB at pH 4.5 (A) and pH 5.5 (B). The solid lines (—) represent the values

predicted by the secondary exponential model, the dotted lines (.....) represent the data extrapolation up 3 h.



Validation of the model (Eq. 5.15) was carried out by the inactivation kinetics of *S. Typhimurium* in contact with 46.4 mM PFB at pH 4.5 (Figure 5.7).

Figure 5.7 - Validation of PFB concentration at pH 4.5 for *S. Typhimurium* reduction. The solid lines (—) represent the Weibull model fits, and the dashed lines (---) demonstrate the 3-log reduction in 3 h.



Theoretically, 46.4 mM (35.05 mM PFB undissociated) predicted by the exponential model (Eq. 5.15), would promote a 3-log reduction of *S. Typhimurium* in 3 h. However, a reduction of 2.83 log CFU mL⁻¹ of the pathogen was observed with 10 hours of contact. This is probably because the exponential model showed a value of $R^2 = 0.860$, indicating failure of the model prediction. Although the R^2 was not as close to 1, the exponential model showed the most accurate data. The concentration of AA present in PFB pH 4.5 to have this inhibition effect was 8.46 mM of which 5.88 mM was in the undissociated form.

The Weibull model presented a good fit to the data of *S. Typhimurium* survivors at 46.4 mM PFB, with $RMSE = 0.119$ and $R^2 = 0.986$. The parameters of the model fit were $\beta = 5.20$ (h), and $\alpha = 1.56$. According to the shape of the inactivation curve (Figure 5.7), the microbial population in contact with 46.4 mM PFB may contain members that initially show resistance to treatment, forming a shoulder, but that over time may not resist treatment (VAN BOEKEL, 2002).

Although it does not achieve 3-log reductions in 3 h, 46.4 mM of PFB at pH 4.5 is sufficient to reduce *S. Typhimurium* in 10 h and can be used in chicken feed to provide safer levels of broiler products.

Since the chicken is fed continuously, there is always food for the lactic acid bacteria present in the crop region to degrade, produce lactic acid and keep the pH at an average of 4.5 (COX *et al.*, 1972). Therefore, adding 46.4 mM PFB at pH 4.5 to chickens' feed or drinking water may promote greater microbiological safety for the

animals. Furthermore, this concentration is lower than the safe level (135 mM PA) of ingestion for chickens, as reported by Bories et al. (2011). It is noteworthy that the 46.4 mM concentration is calculated based on the concentration of PA present in the PFB.

At pH 5.5, 253.6 mM PFB was the concentration obtained by extrapolation (Eq. 5.16) to promote 3-log reductions of *S. Typhimurium* in 3 h of contact (Figure 5.6B). However, validation could not be performed because this concentration was higher than the one produced by fermentation. In addition, it would exceed the safe concentration to incorporate into chicken feed.

Broiler feed characteristics such as salt concentration, pH, and water activity can influence the growth and survival of microorganisms (LEE *et al.*, 2015). Therefore, further studies with the addition of PFB in animal feeds are suggested to evaluate the behavior of *S. Typhimurium*.

5.4 CONCLUSION

The biosynthesis of PA by *P. freudenreichii* resulted in organic acid concentrations that effectively inhibited *S. Typhimurium* at pH 4.5 and 5.5. The most effective inhibition of *S. Typhimurium* by PFB occurred at pH 4.5, with a minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) of 3.5 mM and a minimum bactericidal concentration (MBC) of 10 mM. The combination of acids in PFB had a synergistic effect only at pH 4.5, with a fractional inhibitory concentration index (FIC_{index}) of less than 1. Compared to the commercial petrochemical-based organic acid products tested in this study, propionic fermentation broth at pH 4.5 proved to be as efficient as the petrochemical-based OA.

The concentration of 46.4 mM PFB, predicted by extrapolating the secondary exponential model to reduce 3-log *S. Typhimurium* in 3 h, achieved only 3 logarithmic cycles in more than 10 h of contact., i.e., the concentration predicted by the model was not validated.

The mathematical models displayed a consistent correlation between predicted and observed values, and they can be utilized to estimate new PFB doses for *S. Typhimurium* control within the range assessed. These results indicate that organic acids naturally produced by *P. freudenreichii* have a potential to substitute

petrochemical-based organic acids and promote environmentally sustainable pathogen control.

5.5 SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

Table S5.6 - Linear fit, maximum specific growth rate (μ_{max}), and final biomass concentration (X_f) of pre-inoculum and inoculum cultures of *P. freudenreichii* ATCC 9614.

Culture medium	Linear equation	X_f (g L ⁻¹)	R^2
Pre-inoculum of 24 h	NA*	0.60	NA*
Pre-inoculum of 48 h	$y = 0.032x - 0.2858$	1.45	0.990
Inoculum from 24 h pre-inoculum	$y = 0.030x - 0.0059$	1.30	0.963
Inoculum from 48 h pre-inoculum	$y = 0.055x - 0.075$	3.30	0.988

NA = Not applicable

Table S5.7 - Polynomial model fitting to the experimental data of PA, AA, SA, DCW, and glucose, for the calculations of the profiles of specific growth velocities, substrate consumption, and PA production.

Polynomial Equations		R^2
DCW	$y = -1.71 \cdot 10^{-6}x^3 + 7.71 \cdot 10^{-4}x^2 - 0.02x + 0.33$	0.994
Glucose	$y = -5.62 \cdot 10^{-6}x^3 - 0.001x^2 - 0.04x + 30.20$	0.992
PA	$y = 8.23 \cdot 10^4x^2 - 0.04x + 1.51$	0.997
AA	$y = 1.89 \cdot 10^4x^2 - 0.003x + 0.38$	0.989
SA	$y = -2.36 \cdot 10^6x^2 - 0.005x + 0.18$	0.830

DCW = dry mass weight, PA is propionic acid, AA is acetic acid, and SA is succinic acid.

Figure S5.8 - Correlation between carbon produced and carbon consumed during 144 h of fermentation by *P. freudenreichii*.

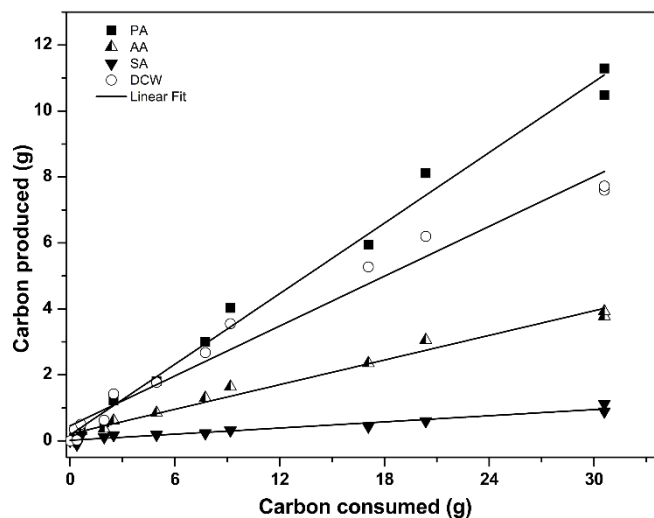


Table S5.8 - Linear fit of product formation data by substrate consumed.

Yield	Linear Equation	R ²
$Y_{PA/S}$	$y = 0.356x + 0.180$	0.992
$Y_{AA/S}$	$y = 0.125x + 0.209$	0.983
$Y_{SA/S}$	$y = 0.031x + 0.016$	0.937
$Y_{X/S}$	$y = 0.2522x + 0.4556$	0.972

Table S5.9 - Parameters (\pm standard deviation) and statistical indices by fitting the BAR and Weibull models to the experimental data of the growth and inactivation curves of *S. Typhimurium* in MOA 1 and MOA2 at pH 4.5, 5.5, and 6.5.

pH 4.5							
Product	α	β (h)	N_0 (Log CFU mL ⁻¹)	R ²	RMSE (Log CFU mL ⁻¹)	A_f	Log Reduction
MOA1	1.53 \pm 0.09	7.17 \pm 0.07	6.17 \pm 0.02	0.966	0.187	1.027	2.75
MOA2	1.63 \pm 0.08	26.17 \pm 0.32	6.25 \pm 0.03	0.976	0.091	1.010	1.59
pH 5.5							
Product	α	β (h)	N_0 (Log CFU mL ⁻¹)	R ²	RMSE (Log CFU mL ⁻¹)	A_f	Log Reduction
MOA1	1.82 \pm 0.03	22.23 \pm 0.05	6.24 \pm 0.02	0.983	0.124	1.014	2.33
Product	y_0 (Log CFU mL ⁻¹)	y_{max} (Log CFU mL ⁻¹)	μ_{max} (h ⁻¹)	λ (h)	R ²	RMSE (Log CFU mL ⁻¹)	A_f
MOA2	6.25 \pm 0.13	8.58 \pm 0.11	0.86 \pm 0.21	4.11 \pm 0.23	0.963	0.190	1.011
pH 6.5							
Product	y_0 (Log CFU mL ⁻¹)	y_{max} (Log CFU mL ⁻¹)	μ_{max} (h ⁻¹)	λ (h)	R ²	RMSE (Log CFU mL ⁻¹)	A_f
MOA1	6.27 \pm 0.02	8.62 \pm 0.07	0.75 \pm 0.15	9.53 \pm 0.10	0.997	0.058	1.004
MOA2	6.26 \pm 0.01	9.03 \pm 0.01	0.44 \pm 0.05	5.12E-14 \pm 0.0	0.963	0.195	1.016

y_0 is the initial cell concentration fixed in the model, y_{max} is the maximum cell growth, N_0 is the initial cell concentration fixed in the model, α is the shape factor, and β the scale factor. MOA is a mixture of organic acids.

6 CONCLUSÃO GERAL

Este estudo avaliou as atividades antimicrobianas dos ácidos propiônico e acético de base petroquímica contra a bactéria *S. Typhimurium* em diferentes níveis de pH (4,5, 5,5 e 6,5) e de oxigenação. Também foi avaliado o comportamento da bactéria quando exposta aos ácidos presentes no caldo da fermentação propiônica em cada pH.

Cada ácido apresentou, individualmente, concentrações inibitórias mínimas (CIM) para inibir *S. Typhimurium* de 7 mM de AP e 4 mM de AA em pH 4,5; 15 mM de AP e 10 mM de AA em pH 5,5 e em pH 6,5 CIM de 300 mM de AP e 473 mM de AA, em condições aeróbias, com o ácido acético apresentando CIM menor do que o ácido propiônico.

A eficiência do AA em pH 5.5 aumentou em três vezes em condições de limitação de oxigênio.

Os modelos matemáticos avaliados nesse estudo demonstraram bons ajustes aos dados experimentais de crescimento e/ou inativação e permitiram estimar as concentrações necessárias de ácido propiônico (94 mM) e do caldo propiônico (46,4 mM) para reduzir três ciclos logarítmicos de *S. Typhimurium*, supondo um tempo de trânsito intestinal de três horas em frangos. O modelo secundário exponencial teve maior precisão na estimativa dessa concentração para o ácido propiônico do que para o caldo de fermentação propiônica (CFP).

A interação entre os ácidos do caldo da fermentação propiônica foi sinérgica apenas em pH 4.5, com CIM de 3,5 mM de AP mais 1,48 mM de AA. Esse resultado é importante, podendo essa concentração ser incorporada na alimentação de frangos para inativar a *S. Typhimurium* no papo do animal e impedir a colonização no trato digestivo posterior.

O caldo da fermentação propiônica foi comparado com dois produtos comerciais contendo misturas de ácidos orgânicos de base petroquímica e demonstrou ser tão eficiente quanto os produtos de base petroquímica. Os resultados sugerem que o caldo da fermentação propiônica possui potencial para ser utilizado como um novo antimicrobiano sustentável e natural para combater contaminações por *S. Typhimurium*.

6.1 SUGESTÃO PARA TRABALHOS FUTUROS

- ◆ Produção de ácidos orgânicos com cepas adaptadas aos ácidos para produção em pH mais baixo, o qual é mais eficiente para inibição;
- ◆ Microencapsulação dos ácidos orgânicos utilizando a técnica de lipossomas;
 - Avaliação da resistência do material das microcápsulas para a entrega dos ácidos orgânicos no trato digestivo posterior de frango simulado *in vitro*;
 - Determinação da concentração inibitória mínima dos ácidos orgânicos microencapsulados em sistema digestivo simulado;
 - Validação dos resultados observados *in vivo* para confirmar a eficiência do produto como método de controle microbiológico.

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